



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

STANDARD ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR



FLOUNDERS



BOOK TWO

CHRISTOPHER SOWER COMPANY

Edw. T 759.10.420

**HARVARD COLLEGE
LIBRARY**



**GIFT OF THE
GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF EDUCATION**



3 2044 097 070 320

THE
STANDARD ENGLISH
LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

BOOK TWO

BY
GEORGE W. FLOUNDERS, PH.D.
SUPERINTENDENT DISTRICT NUMBER EIGHT, PHILADELPHIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

PHILADELPHIA
CHRISTOPHER SOWER COMPANY

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY
GIFT OF THE
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Copyright, 1910, by
CHRISTOPHER SOWER COMPANY

PREFACE.

BOOK TWO of "The Standard English Language and Grammar" is planned for the higher grades of the Grammar School. It makes Grammar a more prominent feature than does Book One.

The lessons as arranged grew up in the school-room and are, therefore, tried material. They are planned to follow those in Book One, and are adapted to a logical extension of the method used in Book One.

Two principles underlie the teaching of language and grammar:

First, it is natural for the child to express himself.

Second, it is natural for the child to imitate the expression of others.

It is the business, therefore, of both teacher and text-book, first, to stimulate the mind to the "bursting point," and secondly, to furnish proper models for imitation. Furthermore, the child must be urged to improve, to invent, to express original thought. These principles have been constantly kept in mind by the author.

This book is not a compendium of such literature as may be found in many excellent readers. It presumes that the trained teacher will make use of such literature in following out the suggestions herein contained. It is believed that the book will be found to be a logical text in grammar and a suggestive treatment of language.

With thanks to his fellow-teachers for their kind reception of Book One, and with the hope that Book Two may prove a proper answer to their numerous requests for an advanced book, the author sends this little volume upon its mission of service.

G. W. FLOUNDERS.

PHILADELPHIA, July 30, 1910.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I.

THE SENTENCE.

LESSON

I. Structure of the Sentence	11
II. Essential Parts of a Sentence	12
III. Word Defined	14
Sentence Defined	14
IV. Kinds of Sentence	15
Classes of Sentences (Use)	16
V. Parts of Speech	18-21
VI. The Definitions of the Parts of Speech	19
VII. Variety of Expression	21
VIII. Expansion of Sentences	22
IX. Contraction of Sentences	23
X. Phrases and Clauses	24
XI. Definitions	24
XII. Sentences Classified According to Form	25
XIII. Parenthetical and Restrictive Clauses	26
XIV. Analysis of Sentence	27
XV. The Diagram	28-32
XVI. The Paragraph	32-34

PART II.

PARTS OF SPEECH; THEIR CLASSES AND INFLECTIONS.

XVII. Nouns	35
Classes of Nouns	36
XVIII. Classes of Common Nouns	37

LESSON	
XIX.	Properties of Nouns (Number) 38
XX.	The Irregular Formation of the Plural 41
XXI.	The Plural of Complex Proper Nouns 43
XXII.	The Plural of Foreign Nouns 44
XXIII.	Nouns Not Used in both Numbers 46
XXIV.	Imitation Lesson 48
XXV.	Person 52
XXVI.	Invention 54
XXVII.	Gender 54
XXVIII.	Figure of Speech 60
XXIX.	Case 61
XXX.	Declension of Nouns 63
XXXI.	Art Inclination Lessons 64
XXXII.	Subject and Object 69
XXXIII.	Review Exercise 70
XXXIV.	Review Exercise 71
XXXV.	The Quotation 72
XXXVI.	Language Lesson for Manual Training 74
XXXVII.	Pronouns 74
XXXVIII.	Classes of Pronouns (Personal Pronouns)
	Declension of Simple Personal Pronouns 76
XXXIX.	Compound Personal Pronouns 78
XL.	Letter Writing 80
XLI.	The Heading 81
XLII.	The Salutation 82
XLIII.	The Body of the Letter 83
XLIV.	The Conclusion 84
XLV.	Business Forms 85
XLVI.	Postal Requirements 86-89
XLVII.	Postal Requirements 87
	Envelope 87
XLVIII.	Study of Literature of Letters 90
	Analysis of Letter 91
XLIX.	Letter Study 92
	L. Letters of Congratulation 95
	LI. Letter of Condolence 96
	LII. Nominative Case (Correct Form) 97
	LIII. Apposition (Correct Form) 99

CONTENTS

vii

LESSON	
LIV.	Independent Case (Correct Form) 100
LV.	Punctuation, Comma 102
LVI.	Possessive Case (Correct Form) 102
LVII.	Objective Case (Correct Form) 105
LVIII.	Agreement of Personal Pronouns 106
LIX.	Relative Pronouns 109
LX.	Compound Relatives 112
LXI.	Interrogative Pronouns 114
LXII.	Parsing 115
LXIII.	Models for Parsing 118
LXIV.	Models for Parsing 120
LXV.	Agreement of Relatives with Antecedents (Correct Form) 121
LXVI.	Language Lesson for Manual Training 124
LXVII.	Articles 124
LXVIII.	Adjectives 126
LXIX.	Pronominal Adjectives 128
LXX.	Comparison of Adjectives 130
LXXI.	Parsing of Adjectives 134
LXXII.	The Verb 135
LXXIII.	Classes of Verbs 136
	Transitive and Intransitive 138
LXXIV.	Properties of Verbs (Voice) 139
LXXV.	Mode 141
LXXVI.	Tense 145
	Tenses of Different Modes 148
LXXVII.	Person of Verbs 149
LXXVIII.	The Participle 150
LXXIX.	The Infinitive 155
LXXX.	Verbs Classified According to Form (Strong and Weak Verbs) 157
LXXXI.	Principal Parts of Verbs 158
LXXXII.	Auxiliary Verbs 161
LXXXIII.	Correct Form of the Verb 163
LXXXIV.	The Parsing of Verbs 166
LXXXV.	Correct Form for Predicate Noun and Pronoun 170
LXXXVI.	The Adverb 171
	Conjunctive Adverbs 173

LESSON

LXXXVII. Comparison of Adverbs	174
Adverbs of Emphasis, Expletives, Affirmative and Negatives, etc.	175
LXXXVIII. The Parsing of Adverbs	176
LXXXIX. The Preposition	178
XC. The Conjunction	179
XCI. The Simile	181
XCII. The Metaphor	182
XCIII. The Interjection	182
XCIV. The Parsing of Prepositions, Conjunctions	183
XCV. Language Lesson from Agriculture (Grafting)	187
XCVI. Correct Form (The Adverb)	188
XCVII. Language Lesson (Planting Wheat)	191
XCVIII. Correct Form (The Preposition)	191
XCIX. Study of Poetical Description	194
C. Correct Form (Conjunctions)	195
CI. Correct Form (Indicative and Subjunctive)	197

PART III.

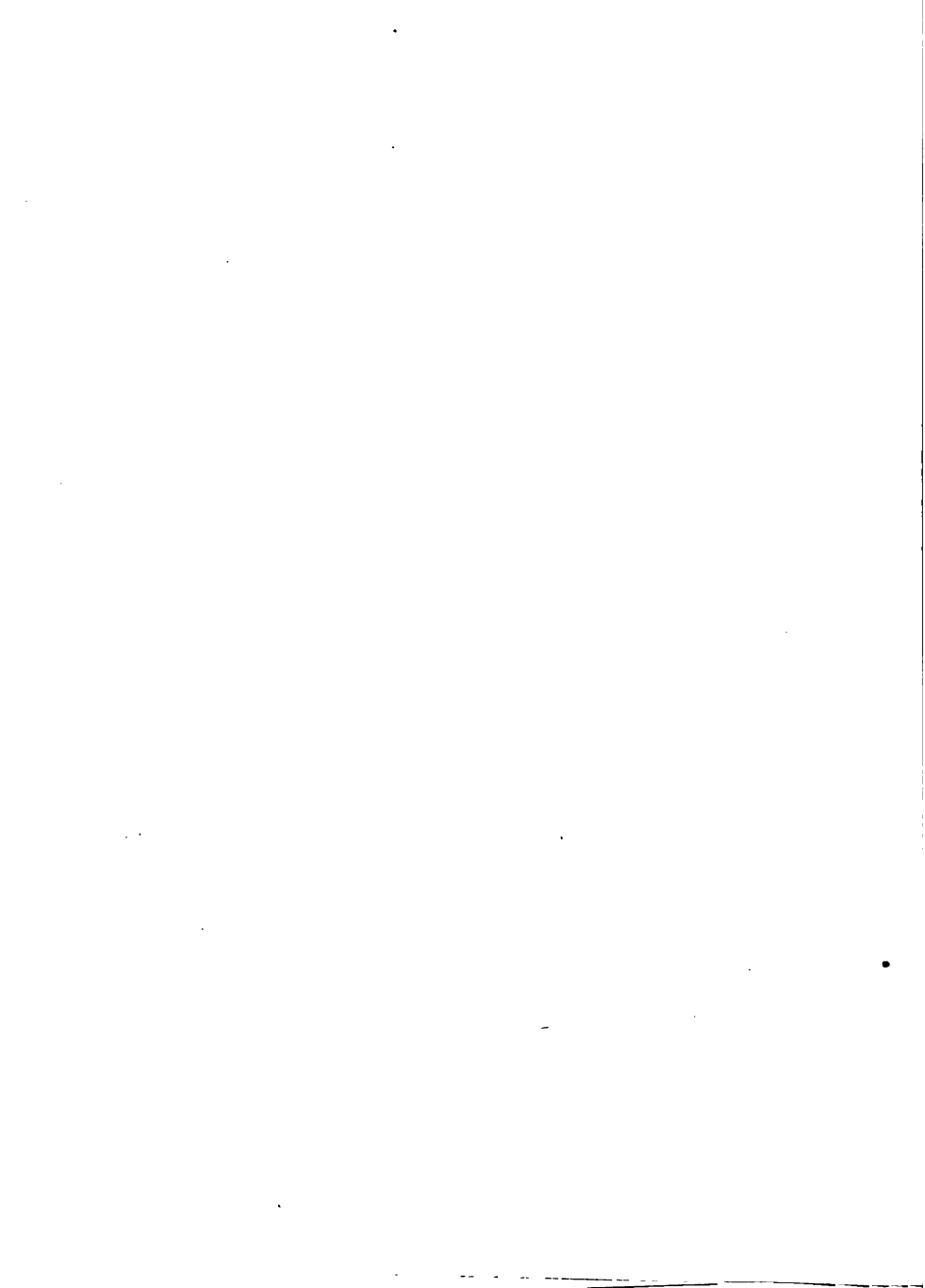
SUMMARY.

CII. The Sentence	199
CIII. Independent Elements	202
CIV. Qualifications of the Subject	202
CV. The Qualifications of Words Qualifying the Simple Subject	204
CVI. Qualifications of the Predicate	206
CVII. The Diagram	208
CVIII. The Diagram Classification and Use of Phrases	210
CIX. Phrases	211
CX. Clauses (Classification and Use)	212
CXI. Summary of Rules for Capitals	213
CXII. Summary of Rules for Punctuation	215
CXIII. The Interrogation	217
CXIV. The Exclamation Point	217
CXV. Quotation Marks	218

CONTENTS

ix

LESSON	
CXVI.	The Colon 220
CXVII.	The Semicolon 222
CXVIII.	The Comma 224
CXIX.	The Dash 231
CXX.	Curves 231
CXXI.	Summary of Figures of Speech 233
CXXII.	Metaphor 233
CXXIII.	Allegory 234
CXXIV.	Metonymy 234
CXXV.	Synecdoche 235
CXXVI.	Hyperbole 236
CXXVII.	Apostrophe 236
CXXVIII.	Characteristics of Good Writing 236
CXXIX.	A Study of Description 237
CXXX.	A Study of Debate 239
CXXXI.	Letter of Recommendation 244
CXXXII.	Formal Invitations 245
CXXXIII.	Informal Correspondence 246
CXXXIV.	Study of Letters (Introduction) 247



LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

PART I.

INTRODUCTION.

LESSON I.—STRUCTURE OF THE SENTENCE.

When a little child begins to talk it uses single words; as, *papa*, *mama*, *pussy*, *etc.*, the names of things. Then he begins to express ideas of motion; as, *go*, *go*; but he uses only single words. A word, then, may be said to be the spoken expression of an idea.

Men have invented characters to represent the sounds of a language, and have learned to combine these characters into written words. The simplest expression of an idea in language is the **word**, and we may permanently record our ideas in the form of written words.

When the child says *papa* or *mama*, however, he expresses no thought about *papa* or *mama*. In order to express a thought he must assert something about *papa* or *mama*. If *pussy* is the subject of thought we must assert something about *pussy*; as, *Pussy runs*; *Pussy eats*. When an assertion is made about a subject

a complete thought is expressed and a sentence is formed. The assertion is made by a word that we call a **finite verb**.

Definition.—A sentence is a group of words so arranged as to express a complete thought.



LESSON II.

THE ESSENTIAL PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

Every sentence consists of two essential parts, called respectively the **subject** and the **predicate**.

The **subject** of a sentence is the part which names that about which something is asserted; as, "*John* | runs rapidly." "*He* | is a strong boy."

The **subject** of a sentence is not always expressed, but is understood, when the person addressed is present; as "(*You*) | Go to your seat." "(*You*) | Begone."

The **predicate** of a sentence is the part that makes the assertion; as, "*John* | *runs rapidly*."—"He | *is a strong boy*."

The **principal word** naming that about which something is asserted is called the **simple subject**; as, "An

intelligent *boy* | can do the work." "A *boy* | with intelligence is needed."

The simple subject taken together with all its modifying expressions forms the **complete subject**; as, "*An intelligent boy* | can do the work."

The **principal word** or expression used in a sentence to make the assertion is called the **simple predicate**; as "The boys | *run*." "An intelligent boy | *can do* the work."

The simple predicate taken together with all its modifiers forms the **complete predicate**; as, "John | *runs very swiftly*."

The **copula**. Notice the difference between the following sentences:

John runs swiftly.

John is a swift runner.

In the first sentence it is stated or predicated that John runs swiftly. The second sentence predicates the same thing, but in a different way. In the second sentence the part that predicates the swift running is joined to the subject by the word **is** used as a coupling word or **copula**.

The verb **is** or **to be**, used to introduce the predicate, is called a **copula**.

Grammatically the copula is part of the predicate of the sentence.



LESSON III.—DEFINITIONS.

A **word** is the spoken or written expression of a single idea.

A **sentence** is a group of words so arranged as to express a complete thought.

EXERCISE 1.

From the following groups of words select and write the five which form sentences:

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Made in Germany. | 6. There is no death. |
| 2. Many fine toys. | 7. Books are friends. |
| 3. The boy was drowned. | 8. A fine lot of books. |
| 4. Speaking of truth. | 9. I am captain of my soul. |
| 5. Truth satisfies the soul. | 10. If I were you. |

EXERCISE 2.

Which of the following groups of words form sentences?
Write the sentences.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. The rain. | 6. Many children. |
| 2. The rain falls. | 7. Children are playing. |
| 3. Flows. | 8. Please take your seat. |
| 4. Water flows. | 9. Bring me a book. |
| 5. Are playing on the lawn. | |



LESSON IV.—KINDS OF SENTENCES.

1. The leaves fall.
2. Flowers are blooming.

These are simple assertions or declarations.

1. The leaves fall ——— when?
2. When do the leaves fall?
3. Flowers are blooming ——— where?
4. Where are flowers blooming?
5. Do the leaves fall?
6. Are flowers blooming?

When we want information we add an asking word to a sentence or turn the words about so as to put them into an asking or interrogative form.

1. Bring me a book.
2. Come here.
3. Go away.

When we command a person he is present and hears the command, so that it is not necessary usually to

mention his name. We usually omit the subject when we give a command. The word **you** is understood in such cases to be the subject.

1. The sun is warm.

2. How warm the sun is!

When we express strong feeling we change the simple assertion to an exclamation.

The four foregoing kinds of sentences express all of our different forms of thought.

CLASSES OF SENTENCES, ACCORDING TO THEIR USE.

1. A sentence that asserts or declares is called a **declarative sentence**.

2. A sentence that asks a question is called an **interrogative sentence**.

3. A sentence that expresses a command or makes a request is called an **imperative sentence**.

4. A sentence that expresses strong feeling is called an **exclamatory sentence**.

EXERCISE.

Arrange the following sentences properly in the four classes:

1. How dark the night is!

2. Is the night dark?

3. The night is dark.
4. Go to the ant, thou sluggard.
5. Bring me a horse.
6. A horse! A horse! My kingdom for a horse!
7. A horse was brought to me.
8. Who will bring me a horse?
9. The groves were God's first temples.
10. There was a sound of revelry by night.
11. Belgium's capital had gathered then her beauty
and her chivalry.

Notice that the first word of any kind of sentence begins with a capital letter.

Notice that the **declarative** and **imperative** sentences close with the **period** (.).

The **interrogative** sentence closes with the **interrogation point** or **question mark** (?).

The **exclamation** closes with the **exclamation point** (!).

The exclamatory sentence takes the following forms:

1. Declarative form; as, They come, they come!
2. Interrogative form; as, How could you treat an old lady so!
3. Imperative form; as, Strike for your altars and your fires!

LESSON V.—PARTS OF SPEECH.

Let us pick a sentence to pieces and see how the words in it are used to express thought. We shall take the simple subject and the simple predicate first.

EXAMPLE.—**The beautiful boat moved most gracefully over its course on the smooth and glassy lake.**

The subject, *boat*, is the name of something.

beautiful describes the boat.

the tells what particular boat.

the predicate, *moved*, tells what the boat did.

gracefully tells how the boat moved.

over its course is a group of words which tells where the boat moved.

its is used instead of boat to prevent the repetition of the word boat.

on the smooth and glassy lake is a group of words that tells where the course was.

lake is the name of something.

smooth and *glassy* describe the lake.

on shows the relation of the course to the lake.

most tells how gracefully the boat moved.

We classify words in nine different classes according to their use in sentences.

These nine classes of words are called **parts of speech**.
The parts of speech are:

1. **Nouns**—names of things.
2. **Pronouns**—words that are used instead of nouns.
3. **Articles**—the words **a**, **an** and **the**, used to point out particular things.
4. **Adjectives**—words that describe things or enlarge.
5. **Verbs**—words that express action, being, etc.
6. **Adverbs**—words that tell how, when, or where actions are performed. In other words, they often affect the meaning of the verb by denoting time, manner, etc. They also affect the meaning of other adverbs or adjectives by enlarging or limiting their meaning.
7. **Prepositions**—words that show the relation of nouns or pronouns to preceding words.
8. **Conjunctions**—words that join other words, sentences, or parts of sentences.
9. **Interjections**—words that are used to express sudden feeling.



LESSON VI.

THE DEFINITIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

A **noun** is a word used as a name; as, Washington, country, beauty, soul.

A **pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun; as
“Henry loves **his** books; **he** studies **his** lessons well.”

An **article** is the word **the**, or **a**, or **an**, which is used before a noun to limit its meaning; as, **The** star; **A** house; **An** insect.

An **adjective** is a word used to describe or limit a noun or a pronoun; as, A **sweet** apple; **Many** books; "He is **good**."

A **verb** is a word used to assert action, being, or state; as, "James **runs**."—"I **am** here."—"The child **sleeps**."—"The dog **barks**."

An **adverb** is a word used to qualify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, "He is **very** industrious, and advances **rapidly** in his studies."

A **preposition** is a word used before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some preceding word; as, "The boy went **with** his father **to** the library."

A **conjunction** is a word used to connect the words, the parts of a sentence, or the sentences, between which it is placed; as, "He is patient **and** happy, **because** he is a Christian."

An **interjection** is a word used in exclamation, to express sudden emotion of the mind; as, **Ha!** **Pshaw!** **Alas!**

Two or more of these parts of speech are always used in combination to form a sentence; one of these must be a (finite) verb.

A sentence, then, consists of two or more words, one of which must be a finite verb, so combined as to make complete sense.

Sentences constitute distinct and separate portions of spoken or written language.

Larger portions of written language composed of two or more sentences are called paragraphs. One sentence, however, may sometimes constitute a paragraph. The paragraph will be discussed in the proper place.

Place the names of the parts of speech as the heads of columns. Select the parts of speech in the following sentences and place them in the proper columns:

1. Tall, stately pines lifted their heads to the sky.
2. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
3. Watchman, tell us of the night.
4. The top of the mountain is covered with snow.
5. Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways and be wise.
6. What beautiful flowers you have!
7. Who designed St. Paul's, London?

What kind of sentence is each of the foregoing?



LESSON VII.—VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

Re-write the following sentences, using other parts of speech, as pronouns for some of the nouns or single words for groups of words:

1. Amy puts on Amy's gloves.
2. Tell James to give James's book to John.
3. A man's children are dear to the man.

Change the following sentences from the negative to the positive form:

1. No animal is more faithful than the dog.
2. There is no other animal more useful to man than the horse.
3. It is not improbable that the North Pole has been discovered.
4. John was not unwilling to play the part assigned to him.
5. The form of the tiger is not unlike that of the cat.
6. The son was not unlike the father.



LESSON VIII.—EXPANSION OF SENTENCES.

Expand the following sentences by adding adjectives and adverbs:

1. The — children play — upon the — grass.
2. Many — boys are — ruined by associating with — companions.
3. The — birds are chattering — in the — trees.
4. The — diamond is composed of the same substance as the — coal that we burn.

5. The — herd winds — o'er the lea,

And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Expand the foregoing sentences still more, where possible, by using adverbs to modify the meaning of the adjectives and adverbs that you have used.



LESSON IX.—CONTRACTION OF SENTENCES.

The force of sentences is often weakened by the use of too many modifying words. Such words as *very*, for instance, should be sparingly used.

Extravagant words should not be used, as they not only weaken the force of language but also render it tiresome and inelegant.

EXERCISE.

Contract the following sentences by omitting the superfluous words:

1. That very beautiful girl is very much beloved by her friends because she is very frank and unaffected in manner and very careful of the feelings of others.

2. As we emerged from the very dark forest we beheld a most gorgeous sunset.

LESSON X.—PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

An *industrious* man will succeed.

A man *with industry* will succeed.

A man *who is industrious* will succeed.

A *brainy* boy will learn.

A boy *with brains* will learn.

A boy *who has brains* will learn.

Notice that the adjective *brainy* describes boy.

Notice also that the groups of words *with brains* and *who has brains* describe boy in just the same way. That is, they do the work of an adjective.

Notice also that one of these groups *who | has brains* has both a subject and a predicate, just as a simple sentence has. The other group *with brains* has neither subject nor predicate.

This group of words, which contains a subject and predicate, is called a **clause**.

The group that does not contain a subject and predicate is called a **phrase**.

**LESSON XI.—DEFINITIONS.**

A **clause** is a group of related words which contains a subject and predicate and is used as a part of speech.

A **phrase** is a group of related words which does *not* contain a subject and predicate, and which is used as a part of speech.

When a verb consists of a group of words it is called a **verb phrase**.



LESSON XII.

SENTENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FORM.

Sentences are classified according to form as Simple, Complex, and Compound.

A **simple sentence** contains a single proposition, though either subject or predicate, or both, may be compound; as,

The horse | runs.

The dog and the boy | run.

The boy and the dog | run and play.

A **complex sentence** contains a modifying *clause* or clauses; as, "The boy *who studies* will succeed."—*"Whoever runs* may read."

A **compound sentence** consists of two or more sentences (simple or complex) joined into one sentence; as, "He who is ambitious may become rich, but riches do not always bring happiness."



LESSON XIII.

CLAUSES, PARENTHETICAL AND RESTRICTIVE.

The man *whom you saw at the door* is my father.

The woman *who wears the white hat* is the new teacher.

Notice that in these sentences the clause points out a particular person in each case. That is, the clause restricts the noun to the naming of a particular person pointed out. When a clause is so used it is said to be a restrictive clause, and it must be kept close to the word which it modifies and must *not* be set off by commas.

My brother, *who is a cripple*, can not play ball.

Notice that in this sentence the clause is only thrown in as a remark to explain something in a parenthetical way. It is called *non-restrictive* or parenthetical. When so used the clause must be set off by commas.

EXERCISE.

Write the following sentences and underline the clauses or phrases that are *not* restrictive. Be careful to set off non-restrictive clauses and phrases with commas.

Washington who was the first president of the United States was noted for his nobility of bearing.

My friend he of the dark hair came from Boston to visit me.

The man with eyeglasses is the teacher of literature.

The flowers that bloom in the fall are most gorgeous.

**LESSON XIV.—ANALYSIS OF THE SENTENCE.**

The separation of a sentence into its principal parts, together with the pointing out of the various word, phrase, and clause modifiers, is called **analysis**. In analyzing a sentence, the kind of sentence according to form and use should be first stated, and following this the sentence should be separated into subject, predicate, and modifiers. The modifiers, if phrases or clauses, should also be further analyzed. Thus, the following is the analysis of a simple sentence:

EXAMPLE.—The faithful soldier fought bravely for his country.

This is a simple declarative sentence.

It is simple because it contains but one proposition.

It is declarative because it makes a statement.

The complete subject is *the faithful soldier*.

The complete predicate is *fought bravely for his country*.

The simple subject is the noun *soldier*.

Soldier is modified by the article *the* and the adjective *faithful*.

The simple predicate is the verb *fought*.

Fought is modified by the adverb *bravely* and the prepositional phrase *for his country*, used as an *adverbial modifier*.

This phrase consists of the preposition *for* and its object *country*, the noun *country* being modified by the possessive pronoun *his*.

A *complex* sentence is analyzed in the same manner as a simple one.

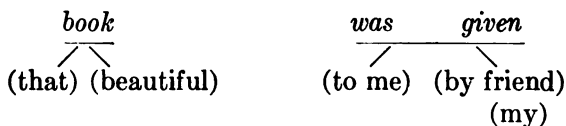
A *compound* sentence is first separated into its component members, and then the members are analyzed as simple or complex sentences as the case may be.



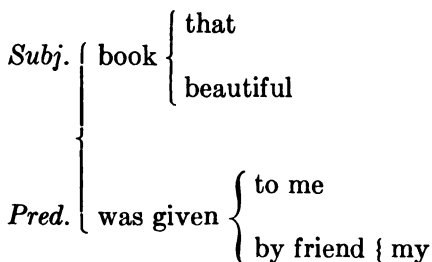
LESSON XV.—THE DIAGRAM.

The diagram is a useful means of making apparent to the eye at a glance the form and structure of a sentence.

Many systems of diagrams have been proposed, but most of them are so complex that they are a hindrance rather than a help. One form of diagram places the subject and predicate first in position and then "hangs on" the modifiers as adjuncts, thus:



A simple form of diagram is the use of the brace as follows:



Another simple form is that used in the table of contents of books for arranging heads, subheads, etc., of varying degrees of importance, as follows:

Nouns

Common nouns

Proper nouns

Compound nouns

Complex nouns

This is called the fourth-letter outline, because the initial letter of a modifier is placed under the fourth letter of the word modified, as follows:

	Soldier
	The
	faithful
	fought
	bravely
	for country
	his

EXERCISE.

Diagram the following sentences, using the brace:

1. The unfortunate man fell into the well.
2. Most men love the clean truth.
3. How beautiful is the sunrise!

Suggestion :

	{	sunrise	{	the
Simp.	{			
Excl.				
	{	is + beautiful	{	how

Notice the predicate adjective *beautiful*.

4. (You) Enter the proper gate.

Simp.	{	(you)		+	{gate	{	the
Imper.							

Notice the object complement, *gate*.

5. The day is cold and dreary.

{	cold
	and
	dreary

6. How cold the room is now!
 7. The day is cold and dark and dreary.
 8. It rains and the wind is never weary.

EXERCISE.

Diagram the following by means of the fourth-letter diagram:

1. This forest is very old.

Simp. Decl.	{	forest	
		this	
		is. . +	
		old .	
		very	

NOTE.—Notice that when a modified word has less than four letters we use dots for the missing letters.

2. The old dog lay sleeping in the sun.

Suggestion:—lay in the sun.

3. The fleet horse ran swiftly in the race.
4. That fine old man has taught many boys.
5. The silver moon sheds her soft light over the earth.



LESSON XVI.—THE PARAGRAPH.

It will be seen that words are arranged in longer or shorter groups, called sentences, each separate statement or question forming a sentence. If we examine a piece of prose composition we will notice that sentences are arranged in groups, called paragraphs, each paragraph consisting of a group of related sentences.

When the composition takes the form of dialogue a new paragraph begins each time the speakers change.

Lincoln's Gettysburg Address is one of the finest specimens of composition. It is divided into three paragraphs.

LINCOLN'S ADDRESS AT GETTYSBURG.

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate

Introductory paragraph.

Purpose stated.

Foundation principle of our government.

This principle tested by civil war.

a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live.

It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here; but it can never forget what they did here.

It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us,—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion,—that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom; and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

Second paragraph.

The dead have already consecrated the ground.

Third and closing paragraph.

The lesson for us. Exhortation to highest patriotism.

Notice that in Lincoln's Gettysburg Address there are three well-defined paragraphs, each consisting of several sentences.

The first or introductory paragraph sets forth the purpose of the meeting. It sets forth the underlying principle of our government, *equality*, and calls attention to the severe test to which the civil war put this government. In the last sentence it sums up in a clear statement the purpose of the occasion, the dedication of the field.

The second paragraph pays a tribute to the dead, showing that they have already consecrated the ground.

The third or closing paragraph points out the lesson to the living. It is an exhortation to the highest kind of patriotic action.

Definition.—A **paragraph** is a distinct portion of composition, treating of a particular phase of the subject.

Notice that in the Gettysburg Address each paragraph treats of a distinct phase of the subject, but that the paragraphs are logically related. That is, each paragraph leads up to the next.

PART II.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH, THEIR CLASSES AND INFLECTIONS.

LESSON XVII.—NOUNS.

The English language is but slightly inflected, the relation of words being shown more by their relative position than by their inflection.

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to show a change of meaning or of use. The different kinds of inflection of the parts of speech are called properties.

DEFINITIONS OF NOUNS.

A **noun** is a word used as the name of any thing; as, *James, Anna, boy, girl, river, truth.*

Words used as the names of letters, words, figures, signs, etc., are nouns; as, "*E* is a vowel." — "The *t* is not crossed." — " + indicates addition." — "*Good* is an adjective."

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

Nouns are divided into two general classes: Proper and Common.

A **proper noun** is a word used as the name of a particular object or collection of objects, to distinguish it from others of the same class; as, *John, Troy, Ohio, the Alps.*

A **common noun** is a word used as the name of any object or collection of objects of the same class; as, *man, city, river, mountains.*

A noun is called **complex** when it is formed of two or more words not united, used together as one name; as, *Dead Sea, Duke of Wellington.*

A noun is called **compound** when it is formed by two or more words united, used as one name; as, *statesman, landlord, man-of-war, chief-justice.*

Exercise.—Tell to which *class* each of the following *nouns* belongs, and give the reason: William Shakspeare, island, word, North America, July, season, year, Prince Henry, Robert E. Peary, man, major-general, Potomac, balloon, soldier, adverb, President Roosevelt, animal, pathway, the Bahamas, foeman.

LESSON XVIII.—CLASSES OF COMMON NOUNS.

Common nouns are sometimes divided into four classes; Collective, Verbal, Abstract, and Diminutive.

A **collective noun** is a word used as the name of a collection of beings or of things, regarded as a unit; as, *family, herd, class*.

A **verbal noun** is a form of the verb which is used as the name of an action or of a state of being. It always ends with *ing*; as, *reading, writing, sleeping*. A verbal noun is also called a *Participial* noun, or *Gerund*.

An **abstract noun** is a word used as the name of a quality belonging to an object; as, *redness, heat, wisdom*. This quality is always considered apart from the object which possesses it.

A **diminutive noun** is a derivative word used as the name of an object which is smaller than that denoted by the primitive word; as, *flower, floweret; hill, hillock*.

Exercise.—Tell to which class of *common nouns* each of the following belongs, and give the reasons: *teaching, circlet, greatness, flock, leaflet, group, happiness, manikin, school, swimming, globule, swarm, duckling, purity, piety, squadron, truth, ignorance, lying, nation, honor*.

LESSON XIX.—PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

Nouns have four properties; Number, Person, Gender, and Case.

NUMBER.

Number is that property of a noun which denotes whether one object or collection of objects is meant, or more than one.

Nouns have two numbers: the Singular and the Plural.

The **singular number** denotes one object, or a collection of objects considered as a unit; as, *desk, bench, nation, flock*.

The **plural number** denotes more than one object or collection of objects; as, *desks, benches, nations, flocks*.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

Nouns generally become plural by the suffixing of *s* to the singular; as, singular *home*, plural *homes*; *key*, *keys*; *rose*, *roses*; *clock*, *clocks*; *cameo*, *cameos*.

This rule always applies to nouns ending with *o*, *u*, or *y*, immediately preceded by a vowel; as, *bay*, *bays*; *trio*, *trios*; *purlieu*, *purlieus*.

Nouns ending with *ch* (not sounded as *k*), *s*, *sh*, *x*, or *z*, become plural by the suffixing of *es* to the singular; as, *bunch*, *bunches*; *gas*, *gases*; *sash*, *sashes*; *fox*, *foxes*; *waltz*, *waltzes*.

Nouns ending with *y* immediately preceded by a consonant, become plural by the change of *y* into *i* and the suffixing of *es*; as, *study, studies; army, armies*.

Some nouns ending with single *f* or *fe*, become plural by the change of *f* into *v* and the suffixing of *es*; as, *life, lives; thief, thieves*.

These nouns are *beef, calf, elf, half, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, thief, wolf, knife, life, wife*.

Other nouns ending with single *f* or *fe*, become plural by the general rule; but *wharf* has two forms of the plural, *wharfs* and *wharves*.

Nouns ending with *ff*, become plural by the general rule; as, *muff, muffs*; but *staff*, meaning a cane, has *staves* for the plural; its compounds, however, become plural by the suffixing of *s* only; as, *flagstaffs, distaffs*.

Nouns ending with *o* immediately preceded by a consonant, differ in the formation of the plural. Some become plural by the suffixing of *es*; others by the suffixing of *s* only; the former mode is preferable.

The following commonly become plural by the suffixing of *s* only: *armadillo, canto, chromo, duodecimo, grotto, halo, junto, memento, octavo, piano, portico, quarto, rotundo, salvo, solo, tyro, zero*, and a few others.

When proper nouns become plural, they follow the analogy of common nouns; as, *William, Williams; Adams, Adamses; Carolina, Carolinas; Cato, Catos*.

The method of forming the plural of proper nouns ending with *y* preceded by a consonant is not settled. Some writers suffix *s* to form the plural; others follow the rule for common nouns; as, *Henrys* or *Henries*; *Marys* or *Maries*; the former mode is preferable.

EXERCISE.

Apply the rules in forming the plural of the following nouns:

Folio, crutch, class, piano, brush, sex, topaz, sentry, monarch, loaf, chief, strife, tipstaff, puff, calico, fife, roof, tomato, quiz, tax, studio, chimney, echo, essay, canto, factory, grief, distich, wife, shelf, surf, scratch, staff (*a body of officers*), colloquy, buoy, Virginia, Venus, Nero, Alleghany, Mary, Wolsey, Charles, Sicily.

MODEL.

Lady.—The plural of *lady* is *ladies*.—"Lady" is a noun ending with *y* immediately preceded by the consonant *d*; therefore, the plural is formed by the change of *y* into *i* and the suffixing of *es*, according to the rule, "Nouns ending with *y* immediately preceded by a consonant, become plural," etc.

LESSON XX.

THE IRREGULAR FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

The following nouns have irregular plurals:

Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Man,	men.	Ox,	oxen.
Child,	children.	Goose,	geese.
Woman,	women.	Louse,	lice.
Foot,	feet.	Mouse,	mice.
Tooth,	teeth.		

The following nouns have both regular and irregular plurals, but with different meanings:

Singular.	Regular Plural.	Irregular Plural.
Brother,	brothers (<i>of a family</i>)	brethren (<i>of a society</i>)
Die,	dies (<i>stamp for coining</i>)	dice (<i>blocks for gaming</i>)
Genius,	geniuses (<i>men of genius</i>)	genii (<i>spirits</i>)
Index,	indexes (<i>table of reference</i>)	indices (<i>exponents</i>)
Penny,	pennies (<i>coins</i>)	pence (<i>amount of value</i>)
Cow,	cows (<i>individual animals</i>),	kine (<i>cattle</i>).

THE PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

Compound nouns in which the first part describes the last, have the last word made plural; as, *field-mouse*, *field-mice*; *fellow-servant*, *fellow-servants*; *statesman*, *statesmen*.

The compound nouns in which the first part is described by the last, have the first part made plural; as, *commander-in-chief*, *commanders-in-chief*; *looker-on*, *lookers-on*; *aide-de-camp*, *aides-de-camp*.

Compounds which have all their parts of equal importance, or which are taken from foreign languages, become plural like simple words; as, *piano-forte*, *piano-fortes*; *sine-qua-non*, *sine-qua-nons*.

Some compound nouns have both parts plural; as, *man-child*, *men-children*; *woman-singer*, *women-singers*.

Compounds ending with *ful* become plural regularly; as, *cupful*, *cupfuls*.

Not all nouns ending with the syllable *man* are compounds of the word "man;" as, *German*, *talisman*, *Ottoman*, etc. These nouns become plural by the suffixing of *s*.

EXERCISE.

Form the plural of each of the following *compound nouns*, and apply the rule: *coachful*, *land-lady*, *major-general*, *ox-chain*, *maid-of-all-work*, *goose-feather*, *step-*

son, sister-in-law, attorney-general, hanger-on, do-little, tooth-brush, sales-woman, statesman, knight-errant, penny-a-liner, vade-mecum, alderman, boot-maker, club-foot, man-of-war, chimney-sweep, fac-totum, hair-dresser, errand-boy.



LESSON XXI.

THE PLURAL OF COMPLEX PROPER NOUNS.

When a complex proper noun, with or without a title prefixed, is used in reference to a class of individuals, it becomes plural, and the sign of the plural is suffixed to the last word only; as, "The *Sir Isaac Newtons* of every science."—"The *Oliver Cromwells* of history."

When a title is prefixed to a proper noun used as the name of more than one individual, the title is made plural; as, the *Messrs.* Smith; the *Misses* Janvier; the *Doctors* Rush.

When a title is common to several different names, the title is made plural; as, *Messrs.* Rand, Vinton, and Wakefield.

When the title is *Mrs.* the sign of the plural is suffixed to the last name; as, The *Mrs. Joneses*.

When two titles common to several names and of equal importance are prefixed, both titles become plural; as, *The Lords Commissioners Russell and North.*

EXERCISE.

Write the *proper* form of the *plural* of the following *complex proper nouns*: General Miles and Chaffee; Lord North and Russell; Counsellor Knox and Root; the Alexander Hamilton of the day; the Mrs. Thomas; the Miss Stewart.

Write the *proper* form for the following *incorrect plurals*: The ten Popes Leo; the two Kings Charles of England; the Mrs. Hall; the three Misses Brown; Miss Jane and Mary Brown; the Miss Jameses.



LESSON XXII.

THE PLURAL OF FOREIGN NOUNS.

By foreign nouns are meant those adopted from foreign languages.

Some foreign nouns, having come into familiar use, have regular English plurals as well as their original plurals.

The following are the most common:

Singular.	Plural.
Bandit,	bandits, banditti.
Beau,	beaus, beaux.
Cactus,	cactuses, cacti.
Cherub,	cherubs, cherubim.
Encomium,	encomiums, encomia.
Focus,	focuses, foci.
Fungus,	funguses, fungi.
Gymnasium,	gymnasiums, gymnasia.
Medium,	mediums, media.
Memorandum,	memorandums, memoranda.
Seraph,	seraphs, seraphim.
Stamen,	stamens, stamina.
Virtuoso,	virtuosos, virtuosi.

Most foreign words used as English nouns still retain their original plurals; among these are the following:

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Alumna,	alumnæ.	Datum,	data.
Alumnus,	alumni.	Diæresis,	diæreses.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Effluvium,	effluvia.
Analysis,	analyses.	Ellipsis,	ellipses.
Antithesis,	antitheses.	Emphasis,	emphases.
Arcanum,	arcana.	Erratum,	errata.
Axis,	axes.	Genus,	genera.
Basis,	bases.	Hypothesis,	hypotheses.
Crisis,	crises.	Larva,	larvæ.

Madam,	mesdames.	Radius,	radii.
Magus,	magi.	Stimulus,	stimuli.
Monsieur,	messieurs.	Stratum,	strata.
Nebula,	nebulae.	Terminus,	termini.
Oasis,	oases.	Thesis,	theses.
Parenthesis,	parentheses.	Vertebra,	vertebrae.



LESSON XXIII.

NOUNS NOT USED IN BOTH NUMBERS.

Some nouns are used in the singular number only. Such are abstract nouns; the names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, and sciences, and of things weighed or measured; as, *goodness, gold, wisdom, truth, idleness, surgery, geometry, sugar, flour.*

Names of sciences ending with *ics*, as *comics, optics*, etc., though plural in idea and form, are regarded as singular only.

When different *kinds* of things weighed or measured are mentioned, the plural form may be used; as, *sugars, teas, wines.*

The nouns *alms, molasses, news*, are singular only.

Some nouns are used in the plural number only. The most common are *annals, archives, ashes, assets, billiards*,

bitters, cattle, clothes, drugs, goods, manners, measles, morals, nuptials, oats, thanks, tidings, victuals, wages. Also the names of things consisting of two parts; as, *compasses, pincers, pantaloons, tongs, tweezers, trowsers, scissors, scales, spectacles.*

NOUNS HAVING THE SAME FORM IN BOTH NUMBERS.

Some nouns have the same form in both numbers; as, *deer, fish, series, sheep, trout, vermin*, etc.; so also nouns denoting a number or collection; as, *hundred-weight, couple, dozen, gross, head, pair, score*: these words may have a plural form; as, "*Dozens* of gloves were sold."

Also such words as *amends, means, riches, cannon, sail*, etc.

These words are singular if preceded by a word denoting but one; plural if preceded by a word denoting a number more than one.

OTHER WORDS, SIGNS, ETC., AS NOUNS.

When other parts of speech are used as nouns, they become plural like nouns with similar endings; as, "*The ins and outs* of office."

Letters and signs used as nouns become plural by the suffixing of the apostrophe (') and s; as, *The a's and b's; the 6's and 7's.*

EXERCISE.

Name in writing each *noun* in the following sentences, and the *class* to which it belongs; tell its *number*, and give the reason:

A soft answer turneth away wrath.

We, the people of the United States, resolve.

George Washington commanded the Americans at the battle of Brandywine, September 11, 1777.

It is the duty of children to obey their parents.

A human soul without education is like marble in the quarry.

Sir Henry Clinton was Commander-in-chief of the British Army in America in 1778.

The Falls of Niagara are in the Niagara River.

The wherefores are very plain.

**LESSON XXIV.—IMITATION LESSON.**

Read carefully the story of "The Discontented Pendulum."

THE DISCONTENTED PENDULUM.

An old clock that had stood for fifty years in a farmer's kitchen, without giving its owner any cause of complaint. early one summer's morning, before the family was

stirring, suddenly stopped. Upon this, the dial plate (if we may credit the fable) changed countenance with alarm; the hands made a vain effort to continue their course; the wheels remained motionless with surprise; the weights hung speechless. Each member felt disposed to lay the blame on the others. At length the dial instituted a formal inquiry as to the cause of the stagnation, when hands, wheels, weights, with one voice protested their innocence.

But now a faint tick was heard below from the pendulum, who thus spoke:

"I confess myself to be the sole cause of the present stoppage; and I am willing, for the general satisfaction, to assign my reasons. The truth is, that I am tired of ticking."

Upon hearing this, the old clock became so enraged that it was on the very point of striking.

"Lazy wire!" exclaimed the dial plate, holding up its hands.

"Very good!" replied the pendulum, "it is vastly easy for you, Mistress Dial, who have always, as everybody knows, set yourself up above me—it is vastly easy for you, I say, to accuse other people of laziness! You, who have had nothing to do all the days of your life, but to stare people in the face, and to amuse yourself with watching all that goes on in the kitchen! Think, I beseech you, how you would

like to be shut up for life in this dark closet, and to wag backwards and forwards, year after year, as I do!"

"As to that," said the dial, "is there not a window in your house on purpose for you to look through?"

"For all that," resumed the pendulum, "it is very dark here; and although there is a window, I dare not stop, even for an instant, to look out at it. Besides, I am really tired of my way of life; and if you wish, I'll tell you how I took this disgust at my employment. I happened this morning to be calculating how many times I should have to tick in the course of only the next twenty-four hours; perhaps some of you, above there, can give me the exact sum."

The minute-hand, being quick at figures, presently replied:

"Eighty-six thousand four hundred times."

"Exactly so," replied the pendulum. "Well, I appeal to you all, if the very thought of this was not enough to fatigue one; and when I began to multiply the strokes of one day by those of months and years, really it is no wonder that I felt discouraged at the prospect; so after a great deal of reasoning and hesitation, I said to myself, 'I'll stop.'"

The dial could scarcely keep its countenance during this harangue; but resuming its gravity, thus replied:

"Dear Mr. Pendulum, I am really astonished that such a useful, industrious person as yourself should have

been overcome by this sudden action. It is true, you have done a great deal of work in your time; so have we all, and are likely to do, which, although it may fatigue us to think of, the question is whether it will fatigue us to do. Would you now do me the favor to give about half a dozen strokes to illustrate my argument?"

The pendulum complied, and ticked six times in its usual pace.

"Now," resumed the dial, "may I be allowed to inquire if that exertion was at all fatiguing or disagreeable to you?"

"Not in the least," replied the pendulum; "it is not of six strokes that I complain, nor of sixty, but of millions."

"Very good," replied the dial; "but recollect that though you may think of a million strokes in an instant, you are required to execute but one; and that however often you may hereafter have to swing, a moment will always be given you to swing in."

"That consideration staggers me, I confess," said the pendulum.

"Then I hope," resumed the dial plate, "we shall immediately return to our duty; for the maids will lie in bed if we stand idling thus."

Upon this, the weights, who had never been accused of light conduct, used all their influence in urging him to proceed; when, as with one consent, the wheels began

to turn, the hands began to move, the pendulum began to swing, and, to its credit, ticked as loud as ever; while a red beam of the rising sun that streamed through a hole in the kitchen, shining full upon the dial plate, brightened it up, as if nothing had been the matter.

When the farmer came down to breakfast that morning, upon looking at the clock, he declared that his watch had gained half an hour in the night.

— *Jane Taylor.*

EXERCISE.

Write similar stories upon the following subjects, being careful to paragraph properly and to use quotation marks properly:

1. The Disobliging Piano.
2. The Disgusted Telephone.
3. Why the Propeller Stopped.
4. The Quarrel in the Sewing Machine.
5. The Complaining Pump-handle.
6. The Creaking Wagon Wheel.



LESSON XXV.—PERSON.

Person is that property of a noun which distinguishes whether the speaker or writer, the person or thing addressed, and the person or thing mentioned, is meant.

Nouns have three persons; the First, the Second, and the Third.

The **first person** denotes the speaker or writer; as, "I, *James*, will go."

The **second person** denotes the person or thing addressed; as, "*James*, will you go?"

The **third person** denotes the person or thing mentioned; as, "*James* will go."—"Leaves fall."

Nouns are rarely used in the first person; in the majority of sentences, nouns are in the third person.

EXERCISE.

Tell to which class each noun in the following sentences belongs; tell its *number* and *person*, and give the reasons:

I, Caesar, came, saw, and conquered.

Napoleon Bonaparte was defeated at the battle of Waterloo, June 15, 1815.

"Charge, Chester, charge! On, Stanley, on!" were the last words of Marmion.

These are thy works, Parent of Good.

A good man is a prince of the Almighty's creation.

Thou, a man in full vigor of mind, shouldst be able to understand the meaning of the expression.

Arise, countrymen! and let "Liberty" be your watch-word.

There is one thing that happeneth to the wise man and to the fool.



LESSON XXVI—INVENTION.

From the following suggestions write stories, putting into them more of your own ideas than you did in Lesson XXIV, and making a character picture or description of the character in each case:

The Disobliging Piano, who sulked and would not give up her music even when coaxed, till she finally lost her power to charm and became harsh and unlovable.

The Mean Old Pump, who complained of his lot and denied water to the thirsty children and animals.

The Creaking Wagon Wheel, who became a chronic grumbler and finally lost the power to serve and was left alone—an abandoned wreck.

Why the Propeller Stopped.—The Propeller, being discontented, stopped, and because of its bad disposition, failed in service, it thus endangered the lives entrusted to its care.



LESSON XXVII—GENDER.

Gender is that property of nouns which distinguishes sex.

Nouns have three genders; the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

The **masculine gender** denotes beings of the male sex; as, *father, king, stag*.

The **feminine gender** denotes beings of the female sex; as, *mother, queen, hind*.

The **neuter gender** denotes objects that are without sex; as, *table, book, mountain, wisdom*.

In *nature*, there are only two sexes belonging to persons and animals, the *male* and the *female*; in *grammar*, the names of males are said to be of the *masculine* gender, the names of females to be of the *feminine* gender, and the names of things without life to be of the *neuter* gender.

Some nouns, such as *parent, child, friend, servant*, denote beings that may be either male or female; their gender is determined by the sense in which they are used; if females are not especially referred to, these nouns are regarded as masculine.

METHODS OF INDICATING SEX.

Sex may be indicated in three ways:

1. By the use of different terminations; as, *heir, heiress*.
2. By the use of different words; as, *boy, girl*.
3. By forming compound words; as, *man-servant, maid-servant*.

1. BY THE USE OF DIFFERENT TERMINATIONS.

According to this method, feminine nouns are regularly formed from masculine nouns by the suffixing of the terminations *ess*, *ine*, *ix*, and others, with or without addition, omission, or change of letters in the masculine.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
Abbot,	abbess.	Elector,	electress.
Actor,	actress.	Emperor,	empress.
Ambassador,	ambadressess.	Enchanter,	enchantress.
Arbiter,	arbitress.	Executor,	executrix.
Auditor,	auditress.	Founder,	foundress.
Author,	authoress.	God,	goddess.
Baron,	baroness.	Giant,	giantess.
Benefactor,	benefactress.	Governor,	governess.
Caterer,	cateress.	Heir,	heiress.
Conductor,	conductress.	Hero,	heroine.
Count,	countess.	Host,	hostess.
Czar,	czarina.	Hunter,	huntress.
Dauphin,	dauphiness.	Idolater,	idolatress.
Deacon,	deaconess.	Instructor,	instructress.
Director,	directress.	Jew,	Jewess.
	directrix.	Landgrave,	landgravine.
Doctor,	doctress.	Lion,	lioness.
Don,	donna.	Marquis,	marchioness.
Duke,	duchess.	Mayor,	mayoress.
Editor,	editress.	Mister (Mr.),	Mistress (Mrs.).

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
Monitor,	monitress.	Sorcerer,	sorceress.
Negro,	negress.	Sultan,	sultanness, or sultana.
Patron,	patroness.	Tailor,	tailoress.
Peer,	peeress.	Testator,	testatrix.
Poet,	poetess.	Tiger,	tigress.
Priest,	priestess.	Traitor,	traitress.
Prior,	prioress.	Tutor,	tutoress.
Prince,	princess.	Tyrant,	tyranness.
Prophet,	prophetess.	Viscount,	viscountess.
Protector,	protectress.	Votary,	votaress.
Shepherd,	shepherdess.	Widower,	widow.
Songster,	songstress.		

2. BY THE USE OF DIFFERENT WORDS.

Bachelor,	maid.	Hart,	roe.
Beau,	belle.	Horse,	mare.
Boy,	girl.	Husband,	wife.
Brother,	sister.	King,	queen.
Buck,	doe.	Lad,	lass.
Bull,	cow.	Lord,	lady.
Cock,	hen.	Male,	female.
Drake,	duck.	Master,	Miss, mistress.
Earl,	countess.	Milter,	spawner.
Father,	mother.	Nephew,	niece.
Friar, monk,	nun.	Papa,	mama.
Gander,	goose.	Ram,	ewe.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
Sir,	madam.	Stag,	hind.
Sire,	dam.	Uncle,	aunt.
Son,	daughter.	Wizard,	witch.

3. BY FORMING COMPOUND WORDS.

Bridegroom,	bride.	Landlord,	landlady.
Cock-sparrow,	hen-sparrow.	Man-servant,	maid-servant.
Gentleman,	gentlewoman.	Peacock,	peahen.
Grandfather,	grandmother.	Stepfather,	stepmother.
Schoolmaster,	schoolmistress.	He-goat,	she-goat.

REMARKS.

Many masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine; as, *butcher, brewer*. Some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine; as, *spinster, laundress*.

Sex is sometimes attributed to inanimate objects when they are addressed or mentioned as persons; as, "The *ship* glides smoothly on *her* (*fem.*) way."—"The *sun* shines in *his* (*masc.*) glory." These objects are said to be *personified*.

Objects that suggest an idea of *firmness, power, vastness, sublimity*, etc., are personified as males, and objects that suggest an idea of *gentleness, beauty, timidity*, etc., and *cities, countries, and ships*, are personified as females.

Young children and animals are often referred to as if without sex; as, "The *deer* was killed as *it* (*neut.*) browsed on the hill-side."

If objects composing the unit denoted by a collective noun are considered collectively, the noun is said to be of the neuter gender; as "The *class* is large; *it* (*neut.*) must be divided."

If the objects composing the unit denoted by a collective noun are considered separately, the noun is said to be of the gender corresponding to the sex of the individuals that form the collection; as, "The *class* said that *they* (*masc. or fem.*) wished to converse."

Arrange the following nouns in two columns correctly headed as follows:

Masculine.

Stepson,
Lad,

Feminine.

stepdaughter.
lass.

Stepson, lass, sultan, hunter, grandson, sister-in-law, widow, lord, miss, earl, witch, emperor, marquis, schoolmaster, executrix, duchess, editor, man-servant, testator, hero, nephew, heir, ewe, songster, god, sorcerer, monk, donna, czarina, hind, roe.

LESSON XXVIII.—FIGURE OF SPEECH.

Sometimes words are used in an unusual way or with an unusual significance for the purpose of giving greater variety in expression. These departures from the usual use of words are called Figures of Speech.

Personification.—Sometimes inanimate objects have sex or the power of speech attributed to them, or they are represented as listening or showing human feeling; as, “The moon sheds *her* silver light.”—“The rose blushed and hung *her* head.” This figure of speech is called Personification.

Personification is shown in three ways:

1. By attributing *sex* or some such attribute of human beings to inanimate objects.
2. By attributing the actions of human beings to inanimate objects.
3. By representing inanimate objects as *speaking* or *listening* or showing human feeling.

EXERCISE.

1. Select from literature and write five examples of Personification based upon the attribution of sex.
2. Select from literature and write five examples of Personification based upon the attribution of human action.

3. Select from literature and write five examples of Personification based upon the attribution of the power of speech.



LESSON XXIX.—CASE.

Case is that property of nouns which distinguishes their relation to other words.

Nouns have three cases: the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

The **nominative case** usually denotes the subject of a verb; as, "The *boy* reads."

(The *subject* of a *verb* names that of which something is either said or asserted.)

The **possessive case** usually denotes possession or origin; as, The *boy's* book; *Milton's* poems.

The **objective case** usually denotes the object of a verb, or of a preposition; as, "The boy *struck* his sister."—"The apple is sweet *to* the *taste*."

(The object of a *verb* names that upon which the action asserted by the verb is exerted. The *object* of a *preposition* is the noun or pronoun whose relation is shown to some word preceding the preposition.)

THE FORMS OF THE CASES.

The nominative and the objective case of nouns are alike in form. They are distinguished from each other by their relations to other words.

The possessive case may always be known by its form.

The possessive case in the singular number is usually formed by suffixing the apostrophe and *s* ('*s*) to the nominative singular; as, nom., *day*; poss., *day's*.

An apostrophe only is sometimes used to distinguish the possessive case, when the nominative singular ends with the sound of *s* and the next word begins with the same sound; as, For *conscience'* sake; *Jones'* store. It is preferable to use both an apostrophe and *s* in all such instances.

The possessive case in the plural number is formed by suffixing the apostrophe only to the nominative plural when the nominative plural ends with *s*, and by suffixing both the apostrophe and *s* when the nominative plural does not end with *s*; as, nom., *days*; poss., *days'*; nom., *men*; poss., *men's*.

The possessive case of compound and complex nouns is formed by suffixing the '*s* to the end of the last word; as, "The *man-of-war's* crew; the *men-of-war's* crews; the *court-martial's* sentence; *John Hancock's* signature.

In the possessive case of nouns having the same form in both numbers, the apostrophe precedes the *s* in the singular, and follows it in the plural, for the sake of distinction; as, "The *deer's* horn was broken."—"A load of *deers'* horns was offered for sale."

The apostrophe and *s* are not always used as the sign of the possessive case. They are sometimes used to form the plural of letters, characters, etc., used as nouns; as, "His *t's* were not crossed." They are also used to form the singular of some verbs; as, "He *pro's* and *con's*, and considers the question carefully."



LESSON XXX.—THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

The Inflection of nouns is called Declension.

The **declension** of nouns is the regular arrangement of their numbers and cases.

EXAMPLES OF DECLENSION.

Singular.

Nom. Friend, ox, sky, church, James, box.
Poss. Friend's, ox's, sky's, church's, James's, box's.
Obj. Friend, ox, sky, church, James, box.

Plural.

Nom. Friends, oxen, skies, churches, Jameses, boxes.
Poss. Friends', oxen's, skies', churches', Jameses', boxes'.
Obj. Friends, oxen, skies, churches, Jameses, boxes.

Exercise I.—Write in tabular form the declension of the following nouns: torch, fox, colony, money, glass, foot, wife, lash, cargo, trio, Jones, page, study, princess, brother-in-law, thief, spoonful, dwarf, mouse, potato.

Exercise II.—Write in two columns the *possessive singular* and *plural* of the following nouns: chimney, waltz, country, flag-staff, brush, musk-ox, salesman, cupful, German, son-in-law, George Washington, court-martial, Robert Morris, Mussulman, commander-in-chief, half, sheep.



LESSON XXXI.—ART LITERATURE LESSON.

THE STORY OF EARLY ITALIAN ART

The early Italian artists painted in fresco, so called because the painting was done on fresh damp plaster. When they painted on this, the color dried in with the plaster. They also painted on panels of wood. These frescoes and wooden panels were used for decorating churches and palaces. Later they used oil paints. Most of their subjects were religious, such as scenes from the life of Christ and His Apostles, and scenes from the Old Testament history.

The “Madonna and the Child” is one of the most interesting groups of religious subjects. It represents the

Christ Child and His mother. Raphael gave to the world about one hundred Madonnas. His greatest Madonna is the "Sistine Madonna," and his most popular, "The Madonna of the Chair."

"The Madonna of the Chair" has been called "the favorite of the world." It was painted on wood, and according to an old legend, Raphael painted it on the top of a wine-cask. In this picture the Christ Child, His mother, and little Saint John are shown. The mother is seated on a low chair, and this is why it was called "The Madonna of the Chair."

THE STORY OF RAPHAEL.

[Written by a Child.]

In the latter part of the fifteenth century, in Urbino, on the eastern slope of the Apennines, was born a boy named Raphael. His father was an artist, and therefore Raphael had a great love for art. He used to help his father in his studio, and he received his early education in art from him. He was only eleven years old, and yet he could paint almost as well as a grown person. About this time his father died, and since he could paint so well he was sent to Perugino, one of the great artists of the day, to study art. He was received with kindness, and Perugino, seeing how well he could paint, said: "Let him be my pupil, but he will soon be my master."

When boys went to study art in those days, they did not just sit down and paint and draw as many boys today think they did, but they had to sweep the studio, or, if the master began to paint a picture, and he did not finish it, the pupils had to finish putting on the colors. This is just how hard Raphael worked and studied. He remained with his master about eight years. Raphael was the kind of a man who was never satisfied with what he did, and was always seeking for something better and higher. At the age of twenty he was looked upon as a great artist. Some one has said that he was a perfect artist and a perfect man. Ever since his early age he had longed to go to Florence, and now he went and remained for four years. Florence was then the great art centre, and Raphael went there to seek other ideas.

About a year after that, he was sent for by the Pope of Rome to come and decorate the walls and ceilings of three rooms, and the corridor leading to them, in the Vatican. He spent the remaining years of his life here. He was painting "The Transfiguration" when his death occurred, on his thirty-seventh birthday, in 1520.

Raphael was one of the world's four greatest painters, and he made himself great by not being satisfied with anything but the best. He spent weeks and sometimes months on the upper or lower part of a picture.

Some of his greatest works are: the "Sistine Madonna," which is considered the finest of his paintings, and by many the finest in the world; "The Madonna of the Chair," his most popular one, and "The Transfiguration."

RAPHAEL'S MADONNA OF THE CHAIR.

[Written by a Child.]

A very delightful story is told of the picture called "The Madonna of the Chair." It runs something like this:

Many years ago, in a beautiful valley in Italy, there lived an old hermit. He was very much beloved by all the people of the quiet valley, because he helped the poor and cared for the sick. His rude little hut, in the woods, was built beneath a large oak tree. When the branches of this great tree waved to and fro, he thought that it tried to converse with him. The hermit always said he had two friends: one friend that could talk, who was the vine-dresser's daughter, and his mute friend, the old oak tree.

One day, as he saw a storm arising, he knew his old hut would be blown away by the terrific winds. He felt as if the oak tree was beckoning to him, and so he gathered together a few articles which he needed and climbed up into the old tree among the many birds who were nestling there for shelter from the storm. The

hermit thought he would die of hunger, when along came his friend, lovely Mary. She took him home with her and cared for him. The hermit prayed that his two friends might be glorified together.

. Time went on and the old hermit died. Mary married and had two dear little boys. The old oak tree was cut down and made into wine-casks.

As Mary was seated on a low chair, one day, with her two little boys, one in her lap and the other by her side, a young man came walking by. You could tell that he was either a poet or a painter by the thoughtful look in his eyes. He looked as if he were thinking of some sweet vision. He soon saw the beautiful group, and Raphael, for it was he, took out his pencil, since that was the only thing he had with him, and sketched the beautiful picture on the clean head of a wine-cask which he seized from the ground beside him. He then went home and colored it in beautiful colors, and the world is indebted to him for the wonderful picture he gave to it.

The hermit's prayer was answered, for his two friends were glorified together.

EXERCISE.

1. Close the book and from memory reproduce as a written story the legend of "The Madonna of the Chair."

2. Write the story of Raphael.

3. Write the story of Early Italian Art.

The teacher will tell the story of Millet and of "The Angelus." Have the children write these stories as they did the story of Raphael and "The Madonna of the Chair."



LESSON XXXII.—SUBJECT AND OBJECT.

The *subject* of a verb may be found by asking the question formed by placing *who* or *what* before the verb; the answer to the question is the subject; as, "John studies." *Who* studies? *John*. Here *John* is the subject of the verb *studies*, and, therefore, is in the *nominative case*

The *object* of a verb, or of a preposition, may be found by asking the question formed by placing *whom* or *what* after the verb or the preposition; the answer to the question will be the object.

"He struck me." Struck *whom*? *Me*. Here, *me* denotes the object of the action asserted or expressed by the verb *struck*.

"They go to school." To *what*? *School*. Here *school* denotes the object of the relation shown by the preposition *to*.

Me and *school* are, therefore, in the *objective case*.

In the following exercise underline each noun and indicate its case as follows:

nom. obj. obj.
The rifleman struck his target fairly in the middle.

nom. pos. obj.
The drover sold his brother's horse.

The Americans defeated the British at the battle of New Orleans.

The stars twinkle brightly in the sky.

Roses bloom in summer.

Robert's father bought a farm in Pennsylvania.



LESSON XXXIII.—REVIEW EXERCISE.

Tell how the plural is formed in each of the following:

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Pear	pears	Dish	dishes
Song	songs	Box	boxes
Tree	trees	Index	indexes
Lady	ladies	Knife	knives
Study	studies	Wife	wives
Army	armies	Wolf	wolves

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Mouse	mice	Man	men
Goose	geese	Child	children
Foot	feet	Ox	oxen

One 6 and two 7's.

His a's and d's are alike.

What were the *ins* are now the *outs*.



LESSON XXXIV.—REVIEW EXERCISE.

Supply the feminine column of the following:

Masculine.	Feminine.
Actor	_____
Duke	_____
Heir	_____
Hero	_____
Widower	_____
Bachelor	_____
Boy	_____
Brother	_____
Buck	_____
King	_____
Lad	_____
Stag	_____
Son	_____
Nephew	_____

LESSON XXXV.

THE QUOTATION, INDIRECT AND DIRECT.

The farmer said that his son John should bring out the colt.

The farmer said to his son, "John, bring out the colt."

The teacher told John that his lesson was perfect.

The teacher said to John, "Your lesson is perfect."

A quotation that states the thought without being exact as to words is called an **indirect quotation**.

A quotation that repeats the exact words of the speaker is called a **direct quotation**.

A direct quotation begins with a capital if it forms a sentence, and ends with the proper punctuation mark (period, interrogation point, etc.) for the particular sentence; as, The captain shouted, "Cut away the mast!"—"Is this the result of your work?" the teacher queried.

A short phrase may be exactly quoted, without capital or commas, if it does not form a sentence.

Dickens's "sulphur and molasses," in *Nicholas Nickleby*, means nothing to the modern boy.

The indirect quotation needs neither capitalization nor special punctuation of the quoted part,

The direct quotation is set off by a comma or by commas from the non-quoted part of the sentence.

A divided quotation must have each part separately set off by commas, and each part of the quotation must have its pair of quotation marks; as, "Let me make the ballads of a nation," said Fletcher of Saltoun, "and I care not who makes the laws."

When a quotation is contained within a quotation, the inner one has single marks; as, The teacher said, "I find in my book this sentence: 'The sum of the angles of a triangle equals two right angles.'"

When successive paragraphs are quoted, marks are placed at the beginning of each paragraph; but the closing quotation marks are placed only at the end of the last quoted paragraph.

Place the quotation marks for the following:

1. The command, Thou shalt not kill is found in the Bible.

2. It has been said, The command, Thou shalt not kill, forbids many crimes besides murder.

3. My pony, said the boy, can beat yours in a race.

**LANGUAGE LESSON XXXVI.
FOR MANUAL TRAINING.**

Draw the plan for a dog-house.

Write the specifications for the lumber, noting:

First, the kind of wood.

Second, the most economical sizes of lumber.

Write very clear directions for building the dog-house.



LESSON XXXVII.—PRONOUNS.

A **pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun; as, "Thomas deserves praise, for *he* recites *his* lessons well."

In this sentence the word *he* is used in place of the noun *Thomas*, and *his* in place of the noun *Thomas's*; *he* and *his* are, therefore, called *pronouns*,—a word which means "for nouns."

A pronoun is used to avoid the unpleasant repetition of a noun, or to ask a question, or to introduce a relative clause; as, "*What* can he say?"—"This is the boy *who* wrote the story."

The noun for which a pronoun is used is called the *antecedent* of the pronoun, because it generally *precedes* or *goes before* the pronoun; and the latter is said to *represent* its antecedent.

PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS.

As pronouns represent nouns, they have *number*, *person*, *gender*, and *case*, as nouns have.

The number, the person, and the gender of a pronoun are the same as those of the noun which it represents; but the *case* may be different.

**LESSON XXXVIII.—CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.**

Pronouns are divided into three classes; Personal, Relative, and Interrogative.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

A **personal pronoun** is one which shows by its form the *person* of the noun which it represents.

Personal pronouns are Simple or Compound.

The **simple personal pronouns** are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, and their variations in the singular and in the plural.

I is in the first person, and of either the masculine or of the feminine gender.

Thou or *you* is in the second person, masculine or feminine gender.

He is in the third person, masculine gender; *she* is in the third person, feminine gender; *it* is in the third person, neuter gender.

THE DECLENSION OF THE SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

SINGULAR.

	Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
<i>First person,</i> <i>masc. or fem.</i> }	I,	my <i>or</i> mine,	me.
<i>Second person,</i> <i>masc. or fem.</i> }	Thou or you,	thy <i>or</i> thine,	thee.
<i>Third person,</i> <i>masc.</i>	He,	his,	him.
<i>fem.</i>	She,	her <i>or</i> hers,	her.
<i>neuter</i>	It,	her,	it.

PLURAL.

	Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
<i>First person,</i> <i>masc. or fem.</i> }	We,	our <i>or</i> ours,	us.
<i>Second person,</i> <i>masc. or fem.</i> }	You or ye,	you <i>or</i> yours,	you.
<i>Third person,</i> <i>masc.</i>	They,	their <i>or</i> theirs,	them.
<i>fem.</i>	They,	their <i>or</i> theirs,	them.
<i>neuter</i>	They,	their <i>or</i> theirs,	them.

REMARKS.

Personal pronouns in the first and in the second person do not need distinct forms to indicate their gender; as the speaker and the person or the object addressed are present or well known, the gender of the nouns representing them is apparent.

As persons or things mentioned are not necessarily present, different forms of pronouns are required to indicate their sex. Hence, in the third person, *he* is used to represent the masculine gender, *she* to represent the feminine, and *it* to represent the neuter.

Ye, formerly common to the nominative and the objective case in the plural number, is still retained in the nominative, though rarely used.

In the possessive case, *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their* are used when the noun denoting the thing possessed is mentioned, and *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs* when it is omitted; as, "This is *my* work."—"This work is *mine*."

Mine and *thine* were formerly used before the words beginning with a vowel sound; as, "All *thine* iniquities shall be forgiven." These forms are still used in poetry; as, "Time writes no wrinkles on *thine* azure brow."

The apostrophe (') should never be used in writing the forms of pronouns in the possessive case; thus, "It is *yours*," not *your's*; *ours*, not *our's*.

In both numbers the idea of possession is made emphatic

by using the adjective *own* in connection with the possessive forms; "You choose that course at *your own* risk."

In the singular number, second person, the plural forms *you*, *your*, and *yours* are commonly used, though but one individual is addressed; as, "John, have *you* studied *your* lesson?"

The form *thou* is used in prayers to God, in solemn language, and in poetry.

It is often used without representing any particular antecedent; as, "*It* is raining."—"It is never right to steal." "*It*" is then used *indefinitely*, and may be called the *Indefinite Personal Pronoun*.

We is sometimes used instead of *I* in the singular number; as, "*We* stated in our last issue that the candidate had been defeated." This is known as the editorial use of *we*.



LESSON XXXIX.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Compound personal pronouns are formed by subjoining, in the singular, the noun *self* to the simple personal pronouns *my*, *thy*, *him*, *her*, and *it*; and, in the plural, the noun *selves* to *our*, *your*, and *them*.

The Compound Personal Pronouns are *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, and *itself*, and their plural forms *ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*.

THE DECLENSION OF THE COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

SINGULAR.

	Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
<i>First person,</i> } <i>masc. or fem.</i>	Myself,	———	myself.
<i>Second person,</i> } <i>masc. or fem.</i>	Thyself,	———	thyself.
<i>Third person,</i> <i>masc.</i>	Himself,	———	himself.
<i>fem.</i>	Herself,	———	herself.
<i>neuter</i>	Itself,	———	itself.

PLURAL.

	Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
<i>First person,</i> } <i>masc. or fem.</i>	Ourselves,	———	ourselves.
<i>Second person,</i> } <i>masc. or fem.</i>	Yourselves,	———	yourselves.
<i>Third person,</i> <i>masc.</i>	Themselves,	———	themselves.
<i>fem.</i>	Themselves,	———	themselves.
<i>neuter</i>	Themselves,	———	themselves.

The compound personal pronouns have no form for the possessive case either in the singular or in the plural number.

The form *yourself* is commonly used when a single individual is addressed; as, "Give *yourself* no concern," for, "Give *thyslf* no concern."

EXERCISE.

Arrange in tabular form the *number*, the *person*, the *gender*, and the *case* of the following pronouns: his, themselves, I, its, your, mine, theirs, we, hers, us, you, myself, me, himself, my, herself, thine, them.



LESSON XL.—LETTER WRITING.

LETTER FORM: LETTER OF FRIENDSHIP.

(*Heading.*)

DOYLESTOWN, PA., Sept. 9, 1910.

(*Salutation.*)

Dear Uncle John:

(*Body of the Letter.*)

Mother tells me that you and Aunt Mary wish me to visit you in your city home. I shall be delighted to come. You know how I enjoyed my visit a year ago. Those little trips to places of interest with you I shall never forget.

Mother is just telling father of some of the good times that you and she had while she and you were children together on grandfather's old farm. I expect

to spend Thanksgiving with grandfather on that same old place. James and I will make the old cider-mill hum again.

(Complimentary Close.)

Your loving nephew,

(Conclusion.)

JOHN BOND.

(Signature.)

Notice that the foregoing letter has four parts:

I. The **heading** consisting of:

1. The place, and
2. The date.

II. The **salutation**, addressing the person to whom the letter is written.

III. The **body** of the letter. This is the main part of the letter.

IV. The **conclusion**, consisting of:

1. The **complimentary close**, which states who the writer is, and
2. The **signature** of the writer.



LESSON XLI.—THE HEADING.

The Heading indicates the place where the letter is written and the date of the writing. It must be so definite that it may be used as a matter of record for

further reference, and so plain that there will be no difficulty in addressing an answer to the writer. Even the street number should be given if the letter is written from a city.

If the heading is short, it may be written upon one line; but if too long to look well on one line, it may occupy two or more lines. The following are good forms:

ERIE, PA., January 1, 1911.

MILWAUKEE, WIS.,
March 4, 1911.

723 ST. CHARLES AVENUE,
NEW ORLEANS,
March 6, 1911.



LESSON XLII.—THE SALUTATION.

1. **Informal**, as follows:

Dear Mother,
We are all well—

Dear Brother,
We were glad to hear—

Dear Miss Jones,
Come over and bring—

My dear Miss Smith,
Only the worst weather—

2. **Formal**, as follows:

Mr. Robert Manship:

Dear Sir,

Mrs. Addison M. Jones:

Dear Madam,

James Mascot & Co.,

917 Arch St., Philadelphia.

Dear Sirs,

Miss Helen Q. Jones,

Secretary Home and School League.

Dear Miss Jones,

EXERCISE.

Write Headings and Salutations for ten letters.



LESSON XLIII. THE BODY OF THE LETTER.

The letter is the most common form of composition. Few persons write for publication, but all write letters. The ability to write a good letter is a fine accomplishment, and, also, very often a valuable asset. A letter may be literary, or it may be chatty, or it may be short

and to the point, as a business letter should be. There is room for the widest range of taste and ability in the writing of letters.

The body of a letter should contain a good introductory paragraph, giving the purpose of the letter; one or more main paragraphs, and a paragraph that draws the letter to a graceful close. Compose such a letter.



LESSON XLIV. THE CONCLUSION.

We finally turned in after a strenuous day.

Your loving brother,
JAMES B. SMITH.

Hoping for a renewal of your trade,

I am,

Yours very truly,
WILLIAM R. OSMAND.

Yours respectfully,
BENJAMIN GRENFIELD.

Very respectfully yours,
(MISS) MARY WESTON.

LESSON XLV.

LETTER FORM. BUSINESS LETTER.

THE JONES-SMITH COMPANY,
DEALERS IN HARD WOOD AND LUMBER,
Fourth and Union Streets,
Philadelphia.

MARCH 31, 1910.

MESSRS. WESTON & BLACK,
Westmoreland, Va.

DEAR SIRs,

In accepting your offer of March 26th, in which you propose to ship us ten carloads of A 1 White Pine, we would stipulate that this lumber must reach our yard not later than Tuesday the twelfth of next month (April). Otherwise we shall decline to receive it.

Yours very truly,

THE JONES-SMITH COMPANY,
SAMUEL JONES, *President.*

The foregoing is a business letter. **Notice** how it differs from a letter of friendship.

Notice first the Heading. Next notice the Salutation. Next notice that the Body of the letter is very short and to the point, no superfluous words being used.

Notice that the word *stipulate* means *bargain* or *contract*.

Such a word as *suggest* would not do, as it would not be binding.

Notice the Close of the letter.

Write a similar business letter.



LESSON XLVI. POSTAL REQUIREMENTS.

Because of the great number of letters that are sent to the Dead Letter Office each year, the Postmaster-General at Washington suggested that the most important postal information should be taught in the schools. The following matter has been agreed upon by the postal authorities and Department of Superintendence of the Philadelphia Public Schools, and sanctioned by the Philadelphia Board of Education:

GENERAL INFORMATION CONCERNING UNITED STATES POSTAL SERVICE.

Address of Mail Matter: The address on all mail matter should invariably be written plainly in ink.

More than thirteen million pieces of mail matter were sent to the Division of Dead Letters last year, a large proportion of which could not be delivered because of carelessness in writing addresses.

Return of Letters: Letters which cannot be delivered will be returned to the sender if the envelope bears a request for return as indicated by the following form, which also shows the model form of address:

Model Form of Address for Letters.

<p>After....days return to JOHN C. SMITH 146 State St. WILKESVILLE, N. Y.</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 150px; height: 100px; margin: 0 auto; display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> Stamp </div>
<p>MR. FRANK B. JONES</p> <p>2416 Front Street</p> <p>OSWEGO</p> <p>OHIO</p>	



LESSON XLVII. POSTAL REQUIREMENTS.

(Continued.)

First-class Rates, Domestic and Foreign: For United States, its possessions, and the U. S. Postal Agency at Shanghai; also Great Britain, Ireland, Canada, Germany, Mexico, Cuba, and Panama: Letters, 2 cents for each ounce or less; postal cards and post cards,

1 cent each. For other countries: Letters, 5 cents, etc.; postal cards, 2 cents.

Domestic Postage Rates: *First Class.* Letters and sealed matter, 2 cents for each ounce or less. Postal cards and post cards, 1 cent each.

Second Class. Newspapers and periodicals, 1 cent for each four ounces or less.

Third Class. Miscellaneous printed matter, 1 cent for each two ounces or less.

Fourth Class. All matter not included in first three classes, 1 cent for each ounce or less.

Parcels-Post: "Parcels-Post" delivery as such is not provided for within the United States. Packages of merchandise up to four pounds in weight may, however, be mailed (as fourth-class matter) at the rate of 16 cents a pound.

Packages of merchandise up to eleven pounds in weight may be sent by "Parcels-Post" to certain *foreign* countries at the rate of 12 cents a pound or less. Full information regarding the use of "Parcels-Post" may be obtained at any post-office.

Money Orders: On payment of a small fee, remittance may be made safely by mail by means of postal money orders. The postal authorities recommend that postal money orders be used, whenever available, instead of cash, for remittance by mail, and that when postal

money orders are not available, money be sent by registered mail. Full information may be obtained at any post-office.

Special Delivery: A special delivery stamp, or ten cents' worth of ordinary stamps, in addition to the lawful postage, secures the immediate delivery of any piece of mail matter at any United States post-office within the letter-carrier limits of city delivery offices and within a mile limit of any other post-office. When ordinary stamps are used to obtain immediate delivery of mail, the words "special delivery" must be written or printed on the envelope or covering.

Rural letter-carriers are required to deliver special delivery mail at the residences of patrons of their routes if they live within one-half mile of the routes.

Registry System: All mail matter may be registered by application at a post-office or to a letter-carrier. The fee for registry is 8 cents in addition to lawful postage; this insures safe delivery. A receipt showing delivery is returned to the sender. Registered matter is insured against loss for its value up to \$25.00.

NOTE.—The teacher can get from the post-office valuable printed matter on this subject which is furnished by the U. S. Postal Department.

Have the pupils learn to register a letter and a package.

LESSON XLVIII.—LETTER STUDY.

Thomas Hood to Daughter of a Friend.

DEVONSHIRE LODGE, NEW FINCHLEY ROAD,

July 1, 1844.

MY DEAR MAY,

How do you do, and how do you like the sea? Not much, perhaps, it's "so big." But shouldn't you like a nice little ocean, that you could put in a pan? Yet the sea, although it looks rather ugly at first, is very useful, and if I were near it this dry summer, I would carry it all home, to water the garden with at Stratford and it would be sure to drown all the blights, Mayflies, and all.

I remember that when I saw the sea it used sometimes to be very fussy and fidgety, and did not always wash itself quite clean; but it was very fond of fun. Have the waves ever run after you yet, and turned your little two shoes into pumps, full of water?

.

There are no flowers, I suppose, on the beach, or I would ask you to bring me a bouquet, as you used at Stratford. But there are little crabs! If you would catch one for me, and teach it to dance the polka, it would make me quite happy; for I have not had any toys or playthings for a long time. Did you ever try,

like a little crab, to run two ways at once? See if you can do it, for it is good fun; never mind tumbling over yourself a little at first. It would be a good plan to hire a little crab, for an hour a day, to teach baby to crawl, if he can't walk, and if I was [were] his mama, I would, too! Bless him! But I must not write on him any more—he is so soft, and I have nothing but steel pens.

And now good-bye. Fanny has made my tea, and I must drink it before it gets too hot, as we all were last Sunday week. They say the glass was 88 in the shade, which is a great age! The last fair breeze I blew dozens of kisses for you; but the wind changed, and I am afraid took them all to Miss H., or somebody that it shouldn't. Give my love to everybody and my compliments to all the rest, and remember, I am, my dear May,

Your loving friend,

THOMAS HOOD.

The foregoing letter was written by the poet, Thomas Hood, to the little daughter of his friend.

ANALYSIS OF LETTER.

Notice the form of this letter. Is it a letter of friendship or a business letter? By which part do you first notice this? **Notice** the introductory paragraph. Is it a proper introduction to the body of the letter?

Notice the playful tone of this letter. Would it be pleasing to a child? Much of the poet Hood's poetry is of a sad tone. Would you notice anything sad about this letter? Notice the play upon words. How could Hood carry the ocean home? Why does he use this expression? **Notice** the play upon the words *Mayflies*; *pumps*. Why not write *on him* with steel pens? **Notice** how Mr. Hood persists playfully in taking the wrong meaning of words. **Notice** his use of everybody and all the rest.

Is the closing paragraph a proper close? Why? Is the complimentary close that of a friendly letter or of a business letter?

Write a similar letter to a little boy or girl.



LESSON XLIX.—LETTER STUDY.

General Lee to his Daughter.

CITY OF MEXICO,

February 12, 1848.

MY DEAR LITTLE AGNES,

I was delighted to receive your letter, and to find that you could write so well. But how could you say that I had not written to you? Did I not write to you and Annie? I suppose you want a letter all to yourself; so here is one.

I am very anxious to see you again, and to know how you progress in your studies. You must be quite learned,

studying so many branches, and I suppose are becoming quite a philosopher. There is a nice little girl here, rather smaller than you were when I parted from you, named Charlottita, which means little Charlotte, who is a great favorite of mine. Her mother is a French lady and her father an Englishman. She is quite fair, with blue eyes and long, dark lashes, and has her hair plaited down her back. She cannot speak English, but has a very nimble little tongue and jabbars French at me. Last Sunday she and her elder sister came to the palace to see me, and I carried them into the garden I told you of, and got them some flowers. Afterward I took them to see the Governor, General Smith, and showed them the rooms in the palace, some of which are very large, with pictures, mirrors, and chandeliers. One room, called the reception room, is very richly furnished. The curtains are of crimson velvet with gilt mountings, and the walls are covered with crimson tapestry. The ceiling is ornamented with gilt figures, and the chairs are covered with crimson velvet. At one end of the room there is a kind of throne, with a crimson velvet canopy, suspended from a gilt coronet on which is perched the Mexican eagle on a gilt cactus, holding a snake in his mouth. It was on this dais and under this canopy that President Santa Anna used to receive his company on great occasions. Church is held in this room now every Sunday. Santa Anna's

large armchair is brought forward to the front of the dais, before which is placed a small desk, where Mr. McCarty, our chaplain, reads the Episcopal service and preaches a sermon, General Scott and the officers, and those soldiers that wish to attend, sitting below him.

After showing Charlottita and her sister Isabel all these things, she said she wished to go to her Mamarita, which means little Mama, so I carried her out of the palace and she gave me some very sweet kisses and bade me adieu. She is-always dressed very nicely when I see her and keeps her clothes very clean; I hope my little girls keep theirs just as nice, for I know I cannot bear dirty children. You must, therefore, study hard and be a very nice girl, and do not forget your papa, who thinks constantly of you and longs to see you more than he can express. Take good care of Mildred, and tell her how much her papa wants to see her. I do not see any little children here like her.

Write to me soon, and believe me always,

Your affectionate father,

R. E. LEE.

Analyze the foregoing letter, as you did that of Mr. Hood to little May. What kind of letter is this? Is the introduction good? Is the close as good as Mr. Hood's? Is the language in the body of the letter as playful?

Could you tell by these letters that General Lee was a man of affairs and Mr. Hood a literary man?

Write a letter giving an account of a visit that you have made, and describing the children of the family that you have visited. Imitate General Lee's style as nearly as possible.



LESSON L.—LETTER STUDY.

LETTER OF CONGRATULATION.

Dr. S. Weir Mitchell to Dr. Martin G. Brumbaugh.

1524 WALNUT STREET,
PHILADELPHIA

MY DEAR SIR,

When I saw the news of your appointment I said to my wife, "This is good news, indeed," and so it is for all who care as I do for this great city.

Yours truly,

WEIR MITCHELL.

SUNDAY, JULY, 1906.

PROF. BRUMBAUGH.

Is this a friendly letter or a business letter?

Write a congratulatory letter to your father upon the completion of some important work.

LESSON LI.—LETTER STUDY.

LETTER OF CONDOLENCE.

The following letter is still hanging on the walls of Brasenose College, Oxford University, England, as a model of pure and exquisite English:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, NOV. 21, 1864.

MRS. BIXBY,
Boston, Mass.

Dear Madam, I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant-General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any words of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering to you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the Republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours very sincerely and respectfully,

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

EXERCISE.

Is this a letter of friendship? Write a letter of condolence to some friend.

**LESSON LII.—CORRECT FORM.****NOMINATIVE CASE.**

The subject of a verb must be in the nominative form.

Sometimes children use incorrect forms as, “John and *me* went to school.”

Me is incorrect, because it is in the objective form, but is used as one of the subjects of the verb *went*. It should be, “John and *I* went to school.”

SUGGESTION.

It is easier to see the correct form in such cases as the foregoing if we break the sentence in two, and then rewrite; as,

John went, and

I went.

John and I went.

EXERCISE.

Use the proper form in the following sentence:

(I)

John and (me) have new books.

The subject is usually placed before the verb, but the following instances are exceptions:

When a question is asked; as, "Where is he now?"

When the subjunctive mode is used without the use of a conjunction; as, "Were wisdom to be had for the wishing, all would be wise," instead of "If *wisdom were* to be had, etc."

When a wish is expressed; as, "May love and peace prevail."

When the adverb *there* is used as an expletive; as, "There is a *land* of pure delight."

When emphatic language is used; as, "On *came* the *hosts*."

When *said* or some such word is used in quotation; as, " 'This,' *said John*, 'is not my composition.' "

When poetic form is used; as, "From peak to peak *leaps* the live *thunder*."

The foregoing examples are in *inverted* form. Find the subjects and predicates in the following, and place them in regular form:

Who is he of whom you spoke?
Were gold to be had for the wishing, all would be rich.
May grace, mercy, and peace be with you always.
There is no one to help.
On came the ravenous beasts.
“Now,” said the teacher, “we shall see who is right.”
Now came still evening on.



LESSON LIII.—CORRECT FORM.

APPOSITION.

When a noun or a pronoun is used with another to explain it, the second word is said to be in **apposition** with the first; as, “John, the *blacksmith*, is a powerful man.”—“My brother *John* is a good boy.”

When a noun is used in apposition with another, it must be in the same case; as, “I saw the man, *him* whom you pointed out.” In this sentence *man* is in the objective case, so *him* must also be in the objective form to be in the same case.

“Here is James (nominative case), *he* whom you introduced to me.”

“I see James (objective case), *him* to whom you introduced me.”

“Thou fool (nominative case independent by address)! this night shall thy soul be required of thee.”

EXERCISE.

Use the correct form in rewriting the following sentences:

(her)

This is my mother, (she) for whom I purchased the book.

(her)

I wish to introduce my mother, (she) for whom I purchased the book.

When a noun in the possessive case is used in apposition, the sign of possession is usually affixed only to the noun that immediately precedes the name of the thing possessed; as, " 'The Sistine Madonna' is the greatest of the artist Raphael's paintings."

Sometimes an appositional noun is introduced by the conjunction *or*; as, "The zebra, or *striped horse*, has never been domesticated."

Words of choosing, naming, etc., have two objectives, one of which is in apposition with the other; as, "The committee appointed Mr. Smith *principal*."

**LESSON LIV.—CORRECT FORM.****INDEPENDENT CASE.**

When a noun or pronoun is used separately or independently, it must be in the nominative form; as, "Happy *he* who does the right."—"O *death*, where is thy sting?"

A noun or pronoun may be used independently in the following ways:

1. When used in *address*; as, “*John*, where are you going?”

2. When used in *exclamation*; as, “*Home!* how sweet the sound.”

3. When used to *introduce a thought*; as, “*He* who comes late, let him wait.”

4. When used in *certain participial and infinitive phrases*; as, “To be a good boy is his highest aim.”—“Being called a *thief* did not make him one.”—“He being *defeated*, we dropped the fight.”

EXERCISE.

Write the following sentences in correct form:

Him)

1. He) coming later, we lost the game.

Him)

2. He) who runs, let him read.

(him)

3. The man came back from the stormy sea—but (he)
—where is he?

He)

4. Him) having arrived, we opened the meeting.

LESSON LV.—PUNCTUATION.**USE OF COMMA.**

An independent element (noun or pronoun or other expression) should be set off by commas; as,

John, come and prepare your lesson.

Well, how are you today?

Oh, pretty well!

To be sure, we are fortunate in our position.

EXERCISE.

Write ten sentences, using independent elements set off by commas.

**LESSON LVI.—CORRECT FORM.****POSSESSIVE CASE.**

When possession is denoted, the correct possessive form must be used; as, “The *boy’s* hat.” — “The *boys’* hats.” — “The *ladies’* dresses.” — “This book is *hers*.”

Notice that in the last sentence no apostrophe is used.

The possessive form can be expressed by a prepositional phrase; as, “The *sun’s* rays.” — “The rays *of the sun*.”

These two forms do not always mean the same thing; as, "My picture may not be a picture of me." Be careful always to express just what is meant.

The name of the thing possessed is often omitted; as, "I bought the book at *Sower's* (store)."

The name of the thing possessed is omitted when the possessive form follows the preposition *of*; as, "This is a painting *of West's* (paintings)."

In the use of *complex nouns* the sign of possession is used with the last part of the complex word; as, "James *Smith's* book." — "The king of *England's* crown."

It is better when possible to avoid the unwieldy complex form and use a prepositional phrase; as, "The crown of the king of England." — "Somebody else's." — "Someone else's," etc., should be used as complex forms and the sign of possession used with the last part.

Successive possessive forms should be avoided; as, "*John's father's* cousin" should be "The cousin of John's father."

When two or more nouns denote *joint* owners of the *same* thing the sign of possession is affixed to the last; as, "William and *Mary's* reign."

When two or more nouns denote *separate* owners of *different* things, the sign of possession is affixed to each noun; as, "*John's* and *James's* caps are of different material."

When *joint* owners of the *same* thing are denoted, but *emphasis of ownership* is desired, the sign is attached to each possessive noun; as, "This is *John's* and also *Mary's* book." — "This is *John's* not *Mary's* book."

The possessive form and not the objective form should be used with a participle; as, "*His* having a watch insured his punctuality," not "*Him* having, etc."

EXERCISE.

Write the correct form in the following sentences:

(Brown) (Smith)

1. The thief restored neither (Brown's) nor (Smith's) goods.

(Pierce) (Taylor) (Clay)

2. The fire destroyed (Pierce's), (Taylor's) and (Clay's) store.

(Pierce) (Taylor) (Clay)

3. The fire destroyed (Pierce's), (Taylor's) and (Clay's) stores.

LESSON LVII.—CORRECT FORM.**OBJECTIVE CASE.**

The **object** of a *verb* or of a *preposition* must be in the *objective case*.

The object of a preposition is the noun or pronoun that is used with the preposition to form a prepositional phrase.

Incorrect Form: "Please let John and *I* go to school."
I is incorrect form because it is used as one of the objects of the verb *let*. It should be written, "Please let John and *me* go to school."

SUGGESTION.

When two or more objects are used with a verb or preposition it is easy to see the correct form if we break the sentence into two or more parts and express them separately; as, "Please let Mary and (I) (me) go."

Please let Mary go.

Please let me go.

Please let Mary and me go.

EXERCISE.

Use the proper form in the following sentences:

(I)

1. The teacher took Mary and (me) to the park.

(I)

2. John struck Will and (me) with the ball.

(I)

3. John, will you play with Will and (me)?

(we)

4. Please allow (us) girls to remain with you.

(me)

5. Mary may go with you and (I).

(me)

6. The book was given to Mary and (I).



LESSON LVIII.—CORRECT FORM.

AGREEMENT OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

A **personal pronoun** should be in the same *person*, number, and gender as is the noun which it represents. The following five cases are exceptions:

1. *We*, plural, is sometimes used by editors to represent the person speaking in the singular number.

2. *You* is used in modern form for both singular and plural.

3. *It*, neuter gender, is often used to represent the names of children and animals.

4. *He* and *she* are used by personification to represent the names of things without sex.

5. *It* is sometimes used indefinitely to represent any thing in any number, person, or gender; as, "*It* is *men* not money that we need." — "*It* snows." — "We are wrong, but we do not acknowledge *it*."

According to the rule, when a pronoun represents a collective noun, it should be *singular* if the objects represented by the collective noun are taken together; but the pronoun should be plural if the objects are considered separately; as, "The society held its (singular) meetings." "The crowd threw their caps up into the air."

When two or more nouns connected by *and* are represented by the same pronoun, the form must be plural; as, "John and James lost their books."

If, however, such words as *each*, *every*, *no*, etc., are used, the pronoun should be singular; as, "John and James each lost his books."

If two or more nouns connected by *and also*, *but not*, etc., are used, the pronoun is used to represent the *first noun only*; as, "James as well as Mary was at school, for I saw him."

A pronoun which represents two or more singular nouns connected by the correlatives *either-or*, or *neither-nor*, should be in the singular form; as, "*Either* Mary or Jane has lost *her* book." — "*Neither* John nor James has studied *his* lesson."

If one of the nouns connected by *either-or*, or *neither-nor* is plural, the plural noun should be placed nearest the pronoun, and the pronoun should be plural; as, "*Neither Mary nor her sisters resemble their mother.*"

Sometimes the word *many* is used with a singular noun, but the pronoun representing the noun should be singular; as, "*Many a boy has lost his place by bad conduct.*"

If, however, the noun and its pronoun are in different clauses, the pronoun should be plural; as, "The boy had many an *opportunity* but he wasted *them* all."

The same form of pronoun should be used throughout the same sentence, and from sentence to sentence to represent the same person; as, "*Thou art my friend and I love thee.*" — "*You are my friend and I love you.*"

EXERCISE.

Rewrite the following sentences, using the correct form in each case:

(its)

The club holds (their) meetings weekly.

(its) (throat) (were)

The crowd shouted till (their) (throats) (was) hoarse.

(were)

(itself)

The group of boys (was) quarrelling among (themselves).

(have) (his)

Many a man (has) lost (their) money through speculation.

(were) (him)

James as well as John (was) at the play for I saw (them).

(have) (his)

Either James or John (has) lost (their) purse.

(her)

Neither the teacher nor her pupils saw (their) danger.

(neglect) (their)

Many a girl (neglects) (her) chance to learn house-keeping.

Although Mary had received many a caution she

(it)

neglected (them) all.

(you)

Though thou slay me, yet will I love (thee).



LESSON LIX.—RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A **relative pronoun** is one which relates directly to some preceding noun or pronoun and introduces a clause; as, "*Thomas, who came late, was not admitted.*" — "*He who wins may laugh.*"

Relative pronouns have no separate forms to distinguish the different persons, as the personal pronouns

have. The person is determined by the antecedent, with which the relative always agrees in number, person, and gender.

The relative and its antecedent are not contained in the same part of a sentence. The clause contains the relative and is connected by it with the antecedent, which is modified by the clause.

Relative pronouns are of two kinds, Simple and Compound.

SIMPLE RELATIVES.

The simple relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

THE DECLENSION OF THE SIMPLE RELATIVES.

SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	which,	what,	that.
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,	whose.		
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom,	which,	what,	that.

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	which,	what,	that.
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,	whose,		
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom,	which,	what,	that.

REMARKS.

Who is used in referring to persons. It is, therefore, masculine or feminine, according to the gender of its

antecedent; as, "Napoleon, *who* (*masc.*) was Emperor of France." — "Elizabeth, *who* (*fem.*) was Queen of England."

Which is used in referring to inferior animals and to things without life. It is, therefore, masculine, feminine, or neuter, according to the gender of its antecedent; as, "The deer *which* (*masc. or fem.*) was killed." — "The flower *which* (*neut.*) was plucked."

What is used in referring to things without life only. It is, therefore, always of the neuter gender.

What is equivalent to *the thing which* (or *that which*) in the singular, and to *the things which* (or *those which*) in the plural; thus, "He obtained *the thing which* he wanted;" and in the plural, "He obtained *the things which* he wanted."

What, in meaning, includes the antecedent (*thing*) and the relative (*which*); it has, therefore, a double use, or connection, and is in two cases at the same time; as, "*What* he said, seemed true." In this sentence, *what* is in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *seemed*; it is also in the objective case, being the object of the action asserted by the verb *said*.

Sometimes *what* in each of its constructions may be in the nominative or in the objective case; or, in one

construction it may be in the nominative case, and in the other in the objective; as, "What (nominative) is good for you is good for me."—"He took what (objective) I gave him."—"He took what (nominative and objective) was left."

That is sometimes used in referring to persons, animals, or things. It is of the masculine, the feminine, or the neuter gender, according to the gender of its antecedent; as, "The same person *that* (*masc.* or *fem.*) I knew."—"The newest book *that* (*neut.*) he sold."

That is often used for *who*, *whom*, or *which* in restrictive clauses; as, "The first boy *that* (*who*) fails."—"The same man *that* (*whom*) he met."—"All the money *that* (*which*) he had, was lost."



LESSON LX.—COMPOUND RELATIVES.

The **compound relative pronouns** are formed by subjoining the word *ever* or *soever* to the simple relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*.

The compound relatives are *whoever*, *whosoever*; *whichever*, *whichever*; *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

THE DECLENSION OF THE COMPOUND RELATIVES.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
Whoever,	whosoever,	whomever.
Whosoever,	whosoever,	whomsoever
Whichever,	—	whichever.
Whichsoever,	—	whichsoever.
Whatever,	—	whatever.
Whatsoever,	—	whatsoever.

REMARKS.

The gender of the compound relative is the same as that of the simple relatives from which they are formed.

Whoever and *whosoever* are used when reference is made to persons only.

Whichever and *whichsoever* are used when reference is made to persons, animals, or things without life.

Whatever and *whatsoever* are used when reference is made to things without life only.

A compound relative includes, in meaning, an antecedent and a simple relative; thus, *whoever* and *whosoever* mean *any one who*; *whichever* and *whichsoever* mean *any one which*; and *whatever* and *whatsoever* mean *any thing which*, or *all things which*.

Compound relatives have a double construction, and (like *what*) are in two cases at the same time; as,

"He told *whoever* heard him to obey without delay." Here *whoever* is in the objective case, being the object of the action asserted by the verb *told*, and is also in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *heard*.

Which and *what*, and their compounds, are called *Pronominal Adjectives* when they limit nouns, and *Adjective Pronouns* when they represent nouns.



LESSON LXI.—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

An **interrogative pronoun** is one which is used to ask a question; as, "*Who* discovered America?" — "*Whose* book did you find?" — "*Whom* did you meet in Paris?"

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

Whether, meaning *which one of the two*, was formerly used as an interrogative, but it is now obsolete as a pronoun.

The interrogatives are declined like the simple relative pronouns.

REMARKS.

Who is used in asking about persons; as, "*Who* banished Napoleon?" — "*Who* invented gunpowder?"

Which and *what* are used in asking about persons, animals, or things without life; as, "*Which* of the men escaped?" — "*Which* of the horses won the race?" — "*What* is he? A *poet*."

In asking about persons, *who* inquires for the name of the individual, *which* for the particular individual meant, and *what* for a description; as, "*Who* was that gentleman? *Franklin.*" — "*Which* Franklin? *Benjamin Franklin.*" — "*What* was he? *A philosopher.*"

An interrogative pronoun has no antecedent; but it refers to some word in the answer, called the *subsequent*, with which it generally agrees in number, person, and gender; as, "*Who* improved the telescope? *Herschel.*"

When used to answer direct or apparent questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* do not relate to any antecedent or subsequent, but are used indefinitely, and may be called *Indefinite Relative Pronouns*.

When *which* and *what* are placed before nouns to ask questions, they are called *Interrogative Pronominal Adjectives*.



LESSON LXII.—PARSING.

To **parse** means to tell to what part of speech words belong, to name their properties and relations, and to give the rules which apply to them.

In *parsing*, it is well to name (1) the word to be parsed; (2) the word or words with which it is grammatically connected; and (3) its properties, relations, etc.

Exercise.—*Parse the nouns in the following sentence:*
“The boys found a bird’s nest in the grove.”

Models.

Boys. — *Boys found.* — “Boys” is a noun; “A Noun is a word, etc.,” — a common noun, because it is used as the name of any collection of objects of the same class; — in the plural number, because it denotes more than one; — in the third person, because it denotes the persons mentioned; — of the masculine gender, because it denotes beings of the male sex; — in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *found*.

Bird’s. — *Bird’s nest.* — “Bird’s” is a noun; “A Noun is a word, etc.,” — a common noun, because it is used as the name of any object of the same class; — in the singular number, because it denotes one object; — in the third person, because it denotes the being mentioned; — of the masculine or the feminine gender, because it denotes a being of the male or the female sex; — in the possessive case, because it denotes possession.

Nest. — *Found nest.* — “Nest” is a noun; “A Noun is a word, etc.,” — a common noun, because it is used as the name of any object of the same class; — in the singular number, because it denotes one object; — in the third person, because it denotes the thing mentioned; — of the neuter gender, because it denotes an object

without sex; — in the objective case, because it is the object of the action asserted or expressed by the verb *found*.

Grove. — *In grove*. — “Grove” is a noun; “A Noun is a word, etc.,” — a common noun, because it is used as the name of any object of the same class; — in the singular number, because it denotes one object; — in the third person, because it denotes the thing mentioned; — of the neuter gender, because it denotes an object without sex; — in the objective case, because it is the object of the relation shown by the preposition *in*.

Parse the nouns in the following sentences:

Trade increases the wealth of a country.

Constant occupation prevents temptation.

A man's character may be known by the books that he reads.

Exercise II.—Parse the *personal pronouns* in the following sentence: “As the boy seemed honest, I employed him.”

Models.

I.—*I* (the speaker) *employed*. — “*I*” is a personal pronoun; “A Personal Pronoun is one, etc.,” — in the singular number, first person, of the masculine or the feminine gender, agreeing with the noun (*the name of*

the speaker, not mentioned) which it represents: — in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *employed*.

Him. — *Employed* him (*boy*). — “Him” is a personal pronoun; “A Personal Pronoun is one, etc.,” — in the singular number, third person, of the masculine gender, agreeing with the noun *boy* which it represents; — in the objective case, because it is the object of the action expressed by the verb *employed*.

Parse the *pronouns* in the following sentences;

You have done the mischief and I bear the blame.

Love thy neighbor as thou lovest thyself.

This glorious land is ours.

The slanderer only injured himself in his attempt to injure his neighbor.

The soil is noted for its fertility; it produces two crops yearly.



LESSON LXIII.—MODELS FOR PARSING.

EXERCISE.

Simple Relatives. “Webster, who died in 1852, was an eminent statesman.”

Who. — (*Webster*) who *died*. — “Who” is a relative pronoun; “A Relative Pronoun is one, etc.,” it is in the singular number, third person, and of the masculine

gender, because its antecedent, *Webster*, to which it relates; is; — in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *died*.

“What he desired, was given to him.”

What. — *What was given — desired* *what*. — “*What*” is a relative pronoun, “A Relative Pronoun is one, etc.,” and, in meaning, includes both antecedent and relative (*thing which*); it is in the singular number, third person, and of the neuter gender, because its antecedent (*not mentioned*), to which it relates, is; — in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *was given*; it is also in the objective case, because it is the object of the action asserted by the verb *desired*.

Compound Relatives.—“Men respect whoever tries to do his duty.”

Whoever. — *Respect* whoever — whoever *tries*. — “*Whoever*” is a compound relative pronoun, “A Compound Relative Pronoun is formed, etc.,” and, in meaning, includes both antecedent and relative (*Him, who* or *anyone who*); it is in the singular number, third person, and of the masculine gender, because its antecedent (*not mentioned*), to which it relates, is; — in the objective case, because it is the object of the action asserted by the verb *respect*; it is also in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *tries*.

LESSON LXIV.—MODELS FOR PARSING.

(Continued.)

Interrogatives.—"Who lost the book? Mary."

Who. — (*Mary*) who *lost*. — "Who" is an interrogative pronoun; "An Interrogative Pronoun is one, etc.;" it is in the singular number, third person, and of the feminine gender, because its subsequent, *Mary*, is; — in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *lost*.

"Which escaped from the prison?"

Which. — Which *escaped*. — "Which" is an interrogative pronoun; "An Interrogative Pronoun is one, etc.;" it agrees with some subsequent word (*not mentioned*) in some number, person, and gender which cannot be determined; — in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *escaped*.

Indefinite Relatives.—"He said that he did not know who founded Rome."

Who. — Who *founded*. — "Who" is an indefinite relative pronoun; an Indefinite Relative Pronoun is one which relates to no word antecedent or subsequent; its number, person, and gender cannot be determined; — in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *founded*.

Parse all the *relative* and the *interrogative pronouns* in the following sentences:

He who is truthful is trusted.

The field, which was ploughed, now waves with ripening grain.

The fire, which the hunters lighted, burned the dry grass of the prairie.

The sun dispersed the clouds which obscured his rising.

Who invented the steam engine? James Watt.

Pope says, "Whatever is, is right."

What did Newton discover?

Who first landed on the shores of North America?

He forgets who burned Moscow.

What did the man say? I did not hear what he said.

Do with thy might whatsoever thy duty demands.

The first man that proposed the law, violated it.

The wisdom which the Bible teaches should be treasured in the heart.



LESSON LXV.—CORRECT FORM.

AGREEMENT OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS WITH THEIR ANTECEDENTS.

Who should be used with reference to *persons* or *personified things*; as, "O Moon, thou *who* art queen of the night." — "He *who* runs may read."

Which should be used with reference to inanimate things, to infants, to the lower animals, or to aggregates named by collective nouns; as, "The knife which I found was broken." — "The child which was lost is found." — "The dog which I trained is well trained." — "The mob which stoned the car was dispersed."

That is used, rather than *who* or *which*, in the following cases:

1. After the *superlative degree*; as, "I do the *best that* I can."

2. After the adjective *same*; as, "I am using the *same pen that* I used before."

3. After *who* used to ask a question; as, "*Who that* is lazy can hope to succeed?"

4. After *two* or *more antecedents* which require the separate use of *who* and *which*; as, "Neither man nor wild animal *that* smelled the smoke remained in the burning forest."

Relatives agree with their antecedents in person, number, and gender, as do the Personal Pronouns.

If a relative has antecedents of different persons, it agrees in person with the antecedent nearest to it; as, "*You* are a *boy* (third person) *who* has the ability to do better."

A relative should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent so as to avoid confusion.

The relative *what* does not have its antecedent mentioned, but is said to include its antecedent. It is equivalent to the *thing which* or *things which*. The compound relatives also include their antecedents.

EXERCISE.

Rewrite the following sentences, using the correct form in each case:

(that)

He (who) knows his lesson may recite.

(who)

Who (that) knows the danger would venture into the pool?

(who)

Sweet are the songs of the birds (which) sing in the trees.

(who)

The mob (which) attacked the house seemed wrought up to a frenzy.

(which)

I read the best books (that) I can buy.

(which)

All suffer the same disappointments (that) I suffer.

(who)

No man nor beast (that) ventured out, escaped.

LESSON LXVI.

LANGUAGE LESSON FOR MANUAL TRAINING.

A TOOL-CHEST.

Draw the plan of a tool-chest that can be built with the least waste from a board one inch thick, one foot wide, and fourteen feet long.

Write the directions or specifications for making this box, making these specifications so clear that they can not be misunderstood.



LESSON LXVII.—ARTICLES.

An **article** is the word *the*, or *a* or *an*, which is used before a noun to limit its meaning; as, *The* sun, *the* earth, *an* eagle, *a* man.

There are two articles: *The*, and *A* or *An*.

The is called the **definite article**, because it shows that some object or collection of objects is referred to in a *definite* manner; as, *The* Revolution, *the* army, *the* cities.

A is called the **indefinite article**, because it shows that an object is referred to in an *indefinite* manner; as, *A* battle, *an* army, *a* book.

The definite article may refer to one object or group, or to more than one; as, *The tree*, the *trees*; the *army*, the *armies*.

The indefinite article can refer to one object, or to one group only; as, *A* man, *an* army.

A and *an* are the same in meaning, but they differ in use.

An is used before a word which, when uttered, begins with a vowel sound; as, *An* acorn, *an* honor. *An* is also properly used before a word which begins with *h* and is accented on the second syllable; as, *An* historical essay. *A* is used before a word which, when uttered, begins with a consonant sound; as, *A* watch, *a* unit, *a* youth.

EXERCISE.

Tell before which of the following words *a* should be used, and before which *an* should be used, and give the reasons: Apple, ear, entry, honest, horse, Indian, onion, union, European, watch, youth, unit, umbrella, orchard, ewer, iron, hour, history, yew, humane, eye, hero, heroic, hickory, usurper.

LESSON LXVIII.—ADJECTIVES.

An **adjective** is a word used to describe or limit a noun or a pronoun; as, *Ripe* apples; *unhappy* me.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives may be divided into the following classes: **Descriptive, Limiting, Proper, Common, Pronominal, and Numeral.**

A **descriptive adjective** describes and a **limiting adjective** limits, as the names imply; as, *ripe* apples, *three* men, *these* men.

A **proper adjective** is one derived from a proper noun; as, *American, English, Edisonian.*

A **common adjective** is one which describes or limits a noun or a pronoun, but which is not derived from a proper noun; as, *honest, numerous, perfect, fine.*

A **pronominal adjective** is one that limits a noun mentioned, or represents a noun understood.

A **numeral adjective** is one which denotes a definite number; as, *two, third, single.*

Pronominal and numeral adjectives are limiting adjectives.

Numeral adjectives are of three kinds; **Cardinal, Ordinal, and Multiplicative.**

The **cardinals** denote *how many*; as, *nine, ninety.*

The **ordinals** denote *order*; as, *ninth, ninetieth.*

The **multiplicative** denote *how many fold*; as, *single, double or twofold, triple or threefold.*

Most numeral adjectives may be regarded as *complex* in form; as, *One hundred and nine* dollars; the *two hundred and tenth* page.

A noun becomes an adjective when it is used to describe another noun; as, *Gold* chain, *Croton* water, *Iron* castings.

Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns, and, as such, have all the properties of nouns; as, "The *good* will be rewarded." — "The *little* that he had was lost." — "*Thousands* of dollars." — "Our *inferiors*."

EXERCISE.

Name the *adjectives* in the following sentences, tell to which *class* each belongs, and give the reason:

The ripe grain was cut.

A single mistake may cause a great loss.

The fur of the Siberian squirrel is sold at exorbitant prices.

Spain was once under the Moorish dominion.

The solemn crow was perched upon the leafless branch of the aged elm.

Now come the soft, smoky days of delightful weather, which will soon be superseded by the sharp blasts of bleak December.

High-sounding sentences should not be used in common conversation.

Fifty-four dollars were found in a secret drawer.

Jefferson and Adams died on the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of American Independence.

I never knew of an early-rising, hard-working, prudent man, careful of his earnings, and strictly honest, who complained of bad luck.



LESSON LXIX.—PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

A **pronominal adjective** is one which either limits a noun mentioned, or represents a noun understood; as, "*This* task is difficult." — "*This* is a difficult task."

In the first example *this* "limits" the noun *task*, and is used as an adjective; in the second, *this* "represents" the noun *task*, and is used as a pronoun. When so used it is better to call it an *Adjective Pronoun*.

A pronominal adjective may be parsed as an adjective when the noun is mentioned, and as an adjective pronoun when the noun is omitted; or the noun may be supplied and the pronominal may always be parsed as an adjective simply.

Pronominal adjectives are of three kinds; Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

The **distributive pronominal adjectives** are so called because they limit or represent the names of objects taken separately or singly.

The principal *distributives* are *each, every, either, and neither*.

They always refer to nouns in the singular number.

The **demonstrative pronominal adjectives** are so called because they limit or represent the names of objects in a definite or particular manner.

The principal *demonstratives* are *this, that, these, and those*.

This and *that* refer to nouns in the singular number; *these* and *those* to nouns in the plural number.

The **indefinite pronominal adjectives** are so called because they limit or represent the names of objects in an indefinite manner.

The principal *indefinites* are *all, another, any, one, other, some, such, etc.*

REMARKS.

Another is declined like a noun, in the singular number only. *One* and *other* are declined in both numbers.

The following may also be classed among the pronominal adjectives: *both, enough, few, former, latter, little, less, least, much, many, more, most, same, several, and a few others*.

What, whatever, and whatsoever are often used as relative pronouns and pronominal adjectives at the same time; as, "Perform *what* duties devolve upon you," that is, *those duties which*, etc. When so used they are called *Relative Pronominal Adjectives*.

Which and *what*, and their compounds, when placed before nouns to ask questions, are called *Interrogative Pronominal Adjectives*; in other instances they are simply pronominal adjectives; as, "*What* preparations have been made?" — "The sun gives light by day; *which* fact is obvious."



LESSON LXX.—COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

The Inflection of adjectives is called Comparison.

Many adjectives are capable of comparison; they are chiefly the common adjectives.

The Comparison of an adjective is the change of its form to denote different degrees of quality.

Adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

The **positive degree** is that form of an adjective which is used to denote simply a quality; as, *wise, happy, small*.

The **comparative degree** is that form of an adjective which is used to denote the quality in a higher or a lower degree than that denoted by the positive; as, *wiser*, *happier*.

The **superlative degree** is that form of an adjective which is used to denote the quality in the highest or the lowest degree; as, *wisest*, *happiest*, *smallest*.

THE FORMATION OF COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

Adjectives of one syllable are generally compared by suffixing to the positive *er* to form the comparative, and *est* to form the superlative; as, positive *sweet*, comparative *sweeter*, superlative *sweetest*.

Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally compared by placing before the positive *more* or *less* to form the comparative, and *most* or *least* to form the superlative; as, pos. *truthful*, comp. *more truthful*, sup. *most truthful*; pos. *pleasant*, comp. *less pleasant*, sup. *least pleasant*.

Dissyllables ending with *y* or *e* are generally compared by suffixing to the positive *er* to form the comparative, and *est* to form the superlative; as, pos. *happy*, comp. *happier*, sup. *happiest*; pos. *simple*, comp. *simpler*, sup. *simplest*.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Good,	better,	best.
Bad, evil <i>or</i> ill,	worse,	worst.
Much, <i>or</i> many,	more,	most.
Little,	less,	least.

The following are compared both regularly and irregularly:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Near,	nearer,	nearest, next.
Late,	later, latter,	latest, last.
Old,	older, elder,	oldest, eldest.

The following and a few others have the superlative ending with *most*:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Far,	farther,	farthest, farthermost.
Fore,	former,	first, foremost.
Hind,	hinder,	hindermost, hindmost.
Low,	lower,	lowest, lowermost.
Up,	upper,	uppermost.

REMARKS.

Such adjectives as *anterior*, *inferior*, *previous*, *preferable*, *superior*, *ulterior*, and a few others, suggest the *idea* of comparison, but do not admit its form.

When a question is implied, these adjectives are followed by *to* and not by *than*, as comparatives usually are; as, "This event was *anterior to* the Revolution."

Nominal adjectives, most proper and pronominal adjectives, those denoting *material*, *position*, or *shape*, and a few others, such as *whole*, *universal*, *exact*, *supreme*, etc., by reason of their use and meaning, are not compared.

The comparative and the superlative forms of adjectives which strictly express qualities incapable of being increased or diminished, are frequently used by the best writers and speakers; as, "We, the people of the United States, in order to form a *more perfect* union."

EXERCISE.

Compare such of the following *adjectives* as admit comparison: Noble, ill, soft, humble, pleasant, skilful, juicy, sour, generous, few, handsome, dry, many, far, certain, old, round, acceptable, intelligent, thoughtless, lovely, warm, timid, diligent, cheerful, brave, tough, fore, late, circular, ill-mannered, universal, supreme, good-natured, perfect, sad, evil-minded, sure, Roman, near, Christian, preferable.

LESSON LXXI.—THE PARSING OF ADJECTIVES.

Parse the *adjectives* in the following sentence: "Few persons had nobler qualities than the two friends."

MODELS.

Few. — Few *persons*. — "Few" is a pronominal adjective; "A Pronominal Adjective is, etc.;" it can be compared (pos. *few*, comp. *fewer*, sup. *fewest*); in the positive degree; it limits the noun *persons*.

Nobler. — Nobler *qualities*. — "Nobler" is an adjective. "An Adjective is a word, etc.;" it can be compared (pos. *noble*, comp. *nobler*, sup. *noblest*); — in the comparative degree; it describes the noun *qualities*.

Two. — Two *friends*. — "Two" is a numeral adjective; "A Numeral Adjective is one, etc.;" cardinal, because it denotes how many; it cannot be compared; it limits the noun *friends*.

EXERCISE.

Parse all the *adjectives* in the following sentences:

The swift hound pursues the timid hare.

Tall trees cast long shadows.

Nevada furnishes much gold and silver.

The wind roars through the leafless forest.

Art is long, and time is fleeting.

Seven men in ancient Greece were famous for their wisdom.

This important principle has a threefold application.

He is unhappy because he has been false.

If he were less timid, he would be more successful.

He paid ten thousand dollars for that farm.

English literature was very flourishing during the latter half of the sixteenth and the first of the seventeenth century.



LESSON LXXII.—VERBS.

A **verb** is a word used to assert action, being, or state; as, “James *runs*.” — “I *am* here.” — “The child *sleeps*.” — “The dog *barks*.”

No assemblage of words can make complete sense without the use of a verb, mentioned or understood; nor can any sentence be formed without a subject,—which is a noun, a pronoun, or a number of words taken as a noun, about which something *is asserted*.

Rewrite the following sentences, underlining each verb and its subject:

The farmer ploughs.

The sun ripens the grain.

Kings rule.

How swiftly the sparrow

John plays.

flies.

Mary sews neatly.	The sun rises over the
The full moon shines.	hill tops.
The birds escaped.	The miser's gold sank to
Flowers bloom in the	the bottom.
garden.	What a terrible accident
A deep snow fell.	happened on the river!
The child sleeps soundly.	Terror struck him speech-
Who heard the noise?	less.



LESSON LXXIII.

CLASSES OF VERBS ACCORDING TO MEANING.

Verbs are divided, according to their use and meaning, into two classes—Transitive and Intransitive.

A **transitive verb** is one which has an object, or which requires an object to complete the sense; as, "He *saw* the eagle." — "The *earth hath* bubbles, as the water *has* (bubbles)."

An **intransitive verb** is one which has no object, or which does not require an object to complete the sense; as, "Birds *fly*." — "Truth *is* mighty." — "He opened his eyes and *saw*," — "Experience *teaches* better than books."

The verb *is* and other forms of the verb *to be* are called *copulas*. They couple the subject with the predicate, adjective, or noun.

REMARKS.

A transitive verb asserts *action* only, and such *action* as is always exerted upon some person or thing called the *object*; as, "The sun *warms* the *earth*." — "The boy *struck* his *friend*."

An intransitive verb asserts *being* or *state*, — or *action* not exerted upon any person or thing; as, "The sky *is* clear." — "The traveler *sits* by the roadside." — "The wind *blows*."

Some verbs, though alike in form, differ in class according to meaning; as, "James *returned* (trans.) the *book*." — "James *returned* (intrans.) to his home."

A verb which is usually intransitive sometimes becomes transitive, especially when an object is added having a meaning similar to that of the verb; as, "The miser *lives* a *life* of care." — "And he *dreamed* yet another *dream*."

Intransitive verbs also become transitive when they have a *causative* meaning; as, "The company *ran* an extra *train* of cars." — "The planters *grow* *cotton* and

sugar." These expressions are inelegant, but custom has authorized their use.

EXERCISE.

Rewrite the following sentences, indicating which are transitive and which are intransitive, by means of the signs *tr.* and *intr.*:

MODEL.

James *studies* his lessons while John *is* idle

Transitive.

Intransitive.

Labor sweetens pleasure.

Bonaparte died an exile.

The lightning glanced from the clouds and struck the oak.

While he spoke all listened.

The wind blew furiously and shook the house.

Milton, the poet, became blind.

The good man departs and leaves a blessing behind.

The artist who painted the picture deserves praise.

Louis Napoleon wrote a "Life of Caesar."

The rivulet flows with a noiseless current.

A man dies, but a nation lives.

When people are determined to quarrel, a straw will furnish the occasion.

We mounted our horses and rode homeward.

LESSON LXXIV.—PROPERTIES OF VERBS.

The properties of verbs are Voice, Mode, Tense, Number, and Person.

VOICE.

Voice is that property of a transitive verb which shows whether the subject, or nominative, *does* or *receives* the action asserted by the verb.

Voice belongs to transitive verbs only.

There are two voices, the Active and the Passive.

The **active voice** is that form of a transitive verb which shows that the *subject does* the action asserted by the verb; as, "*Henry carries the basket.*"

In this sentence the subject *Henry* does the action asserted by the verb *carries*.

The **passive voice** is that form of a transitive verb which shows that the *subject receives* the action asserted by the verb; as, "*The basket is carried by Henry.*"

In this sentence the subject *basket* does not act, but it receives the action asserted by the verb *is carried*.

REMARKS.

When the active voice of a verb is changed to the passive voice, the object of the action asserted by the verb in the active voice always becomes the subject

of the verb in the passive voice, and the subject of the verb in the active voice becomes, in the passage, the object of the relation denoted by a preposition; that is, the subject and the object *exchange cases*, the action remaining the same.

Although intransitive verbs have no voice, yet they have the *form* of the *active voice*.

Sometimes an intransitive verb, when followed by a preposition, may take the *form* of the *passive voice*; as, "The event *was looked for*." — "Virtue *is sneered at* very often." *Was looked for* and *is sneered at* are parsed as *complex verbs* in the passive voice.

A few intransitive verbs have sometimes the form of the passive voice, but the sense is not changed, because the subject remains in the nominative case; as, "Summer *is gone*," for, "Summer *has gone*." — "He *is come*," for, "He *has come*."

Although such expressions are sometimes elegantly used, it is generally better to employ the form of the active voice.

EXERCISE.

Rewrite the following sentences, indicating whether they are transitive or intransitive, and also indicate the voice.

MODEL.

James *was esteemed* because he *performed* his duty.

Transitive,
Passive Voice.

Transitive,
Active Voice.

He is loved by all.

Temperance preserves the body in health.

The battle was fought on the banks of the river.

Attend to your business yourself, if you wish to prosper.

The French elected Napoleon.

We shall improve our time by study.

His hours were spent in idleness.

The scholars write correctly.

Orthography is taught in spelling books.

The money was returned by the borrower.

The king returned to his capital.

God, who made the world, governs it.

His wisdom was acquired by bitter experience.

Lifeless, but beautiful, he lay.

Not a berry was found, not a kernel remained.



LESSON LXXV.—MODE.

Mode is that property of a verb which distinguishes *in what manner* the action, the being, or the state asserted by the verb is expressed.

Verbs have five modes—the Indicative, the Potential, the Subjunctive, the Imperative, and the Infinitive.

The **indicative mode** is that form of a verb which is used to express a *positive assertion*; as, “Washington *commanded* the American army.”

A verb in the indicative mode may also be used to ask a question, and to express uncertainty or contingency; as, “*Who invented* the art of printing?” — “If he *has gone*, I do not know it.”

The **potential mode** is that form of the verb which is used to express *possibility, liberty, or necessity*; as, “I *can* paint.” — “We *may* go.” — “He *must* study.”

A verb in the potential mode may also be used to ask a question, and to express uncertainty or contingency; as, “*May* I go?” — “If I *may* go, I certainly will (go).”

The **subjunctive mode** is that form of the verb which is used to express the action, the being, or the state asserted by the verb, as *desirable, uncertain, or as subject to some condition*; as, “If he *come*, he will be received.” — “O that I *were* happy!” — “If this *be* true, all will end well.”

A verb in the subjunctive mode always depends upon a verb in some other mode, and is connected with it by one of the conjunctions, *if, although, unless, except, whether, though, lest*, etc.

The **imperative mode** is that form of the verb which is used to express *entreaty*, *permission*, *command*, or *exhortation*; as, "*Attend to my directions.*" — "*Grant my request.*" — "*Come when you wish.*"

The subject of a verb in the imperative mode, which is either *thou* or *you*, is usually omitted, but it must be mentioned in parsing.

The **infinitive mode** is that form of the verb which is used to express an action, a being, or a state which is *not limited to a subject*; as, "*To love.*" — "He tries *to study.*"

REMARKS.

1. A verb is said to be *finite* when the action, the being or the state which it asserts is limited to a subject, or nominative.

2. Verbs in the *infinitive* mode are called Infinitives.

3. Verbs in the indicative, the potential, the subjunctive, and the imperative mode, are finite verbs.

4. A verb in the infinitive mode depends upon the word which it limits or completes in meaning — usually a verb, an adjective, or a noun; as, "*I wish to go.*" — "It is too *late to go.*" — "It is *time to go.*"

To, a part of the infinitive, is omitted after the active voice of a few verbs; as, "I did not see him (*to*) come." And also after such verbs as *bid*, *make*, *pray*, etc.; as, "I *pray* you come with me." — "I *bade* him do his duty."

The infinitive mode is often equivalent in its use and meaning to a *verbal* or *participial noun*; that is, it may be used as a noun in the nominative or in the objective case; as, "*To play* is healthful."

EXERCISE.

Rewrite the following sentences, indicating whether they are transitive or intransitive, active or passive, and also indicating the mode:

1. Oxen draw carts.
2. A bird can fly.
3. The rain causes the grass to grow.
4. I will remain, but you may go.
5. All that live must die.
6. The faithful servant should be rewarded.
7. She could have returned whenever she wished.
8. He must increase, but I must decrease.
9. If a man strive honestly, he may expect to succeed.
10. All this passed much more quickly than I can write.
11. To relieve the poor is a source of pleasure.
12. Love thy neighbor as thyself.
13. Whatever you do, do well.
14. Though he fall, he will rise again.
15. It is time to go.

16. My son, forget not my law.
17. Mohammed fled from Mecca.
18. The fruits are gathered in autumn.
19. I saw the storm arise.



LESSON LXXVI.—TENSE.

Tense is that property of the verb which distinguishes the *time* of the action, the being, or the state asserted by the verb.

There are six tenses—the Present, the Past, the Future the Present Perfect, the Past Perfect, and the Future Perfect.

The present, the past, and the future tense represent divisions of time into present, past, and future. The other three tenses represent time *relatively* present, past, or future, according to their use or their connection with other verbs.

The **present tense** is that form of the verb which is used to express *present time*; as, “I *learn*.” — “Thou *art loved*.” — “He *is writing* a letter.”

The present tense denotes what *now is*, what *now takes place*, or what *is now taking place*.

The present tense also denotes what is habitual, or what is always true; as, “Vice *produces* misery.” — “He said that the earth is round.”

The present tense is often used in narrative to describe more vividly what took place in past time; as, "Hancock *advances* with his troops and *breaks* through their ranks."

The present tense sometimes refers to future time when preceded by a *relative pronoun*, or by *when*, *after*, *before*, *as soon as*, etc.; as, "He will treat kindly all whom he *receives*." — "He will go when he *gets* ready."

The **past tense** is that form of the verb which is used to express *past time*; as, "He *was* a good man." — "He *fought* a battle." — "He *was dying* when I entered."

The past tense denotes what *was*, what *took place*, or what *was taking place*.

The past tense expresses time which is fully past, however recent or remote that time may be; as, "I *saw* William a *moment since*." — "I *saw* him *yesterday*." — "I *met* him many *years ago*."

The **future tense** is that form of the verb which is used to express *future time* merely; as, "I *shall learn*." — "Spring *will come*." — "He *will be* famous."

The future tense denotes what *shall* or *will be*, what *shall* or *will take place*, or what *shall* or *will be taking place*.

The **present perfect tense** is that form of the verb which is used to express *past time connected with the present*; as, "I *have learned*." — "Thou *hast been loved*." — "He *has written* a letter *today*."

The present perfect tense denotes what *has been*, what *has taken place*, or what *has been taking place*, during a period of time of which the present moment is a part.

The present perfect tense may refer to a past action whose consequences still continue, or whose effects are still felt; or it may be used in reference to an author whose writings still exist; as, "Christianity *has civilized* many nations." — "Washington *has left* an example which all should delight to follow." — "Shakespeare *has written* better plays than any other English dramatist."

The present perfect tense, like the present tense, sometimes refers to future time; as, "Let me know when he *has arrived*."

The propriety of the use of either the present or the present perfect tense to express future time is, in most instances, quite doubtful, although such use is common among good writers. It is better, perhaps, always to employ the forms of the future and of the future perfect tense to express the relations of future time.

The **past perfect tense** is that form of the verb which is used to express *past time which is previous to some other past time*; as, "He *had gone* before the messenger arrived."

The past perfect tense denotes what *had been*, what *had taken place*, or what *had been taking place* before some past event mentioned.

The **future perfect tense** is that form of the verb which is used to express *future time which is previous to some other future time*; as, "I shall have finished the task *before the close of next week.*"

The future perfect tense denotes what *shall* or *will have been*, what *shall* or *will have taken place*, or what *shall* or *will have been taking place*, before some future event mentioned.

THE TENSES OF THE DIFFERENT MODES.

The indicative mode has all the six tenses.

The potential mode has four tenses; the *present*, the *past*, the *present perfect*, and the *past perfect*.

The subjunctive mode has two tenses; the *present* and the *past*.

The infinitive mode has two tenses; the *present* and the *present perfect*.

The tenses in the indicative mode express time according to their definitions and qualifications as already given.

The time denoted by verbs in the subjunctive, the potential, the infinitive, and the imperative mode is not definite; nor is it always such as the names of the tenses imply; it is present, past, or future, according to their use or their connection with other verbs or forms of verbs.

LESSON LXXVII.—PERSON OF VERBS.

Verbs have changes of form to correspond with the number and the person of their subjects.

Verbs, therefore, are said to have two numbers—the Singular and the Plural; and three persons — the First, the Second, and the Third; thus:

	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1st Pers.	I am,	we are.	I learn,	we learn.
2d Pers.	Thou art,	you are.	Thou learnest,	you learn,
3d Pers.	He is,	they are.	He learns,	they learn.

A verb in the infinitive mode has no number or person, because it has no subject.

UNIPERSONAL VERBS.

Unipersonal verbs are those which have but one person.

Would, meaning *wish*, is always in the *first person*; as, “*Would he were here,*” means, “*I wish he were here.*”

Methinks (*I think*) and *methought* (*I thought*) are used, in the *first person*, as unipersonal verbs.

Verbs in the imperative mode are always in the *second person*, but in parsing they need not be called unipersonal.

Verbs which have the pronoun *it* (*used indefinitely*)

for their subject, are unipersonal verbs in the *third person*; as, "It behooves." — "It thunders."

Meseems (it seems to me) and *meseemed* (it seemed to me) are unipersonal verbs in the *third person*.



LESSON LXXVIII.—PARTICIPLES.

A **participle** is a form of the verb which has the nature of the verb and partly of the adjective; as, "Wealth *acquired* dishonestly affords no happiness."

The participle has the nature of the verb, because it *expresses* (though it does not *assert*) action, being, or state, and also *implies time*. It has the nature of the adjective, because, like an adjective, it describes or limits a noun or a pronoun.

There are three participles; the Imperfect, the Perfect, and the Preperfect.

The participles are so named from the *condition* (as regards completion) of the *action*, the *being*, or the *state* implied by the participle at the time denoted by the principal verb with which it is connected.

The **imperfect participle** is one which represents an action, a being, or a state, as *continuing*, or as *unfinished*; as, "The waves were heard *breaking* on the beach."

The imperfect participle in the active voice ends with *ing*; as, *learning*, *seeing*, *reading*. In this voice it is a *single* word.

The imperfect participle in the passive voice has *being* for its sign; as, *being seen*, *being read*. In this voice it is always *complex* in form.

The **perfect participle** is one which represents an action, a being, or a state, as *completed* or *finished*; as, "He came *accompanied* by his friends." — "The army retired, *defeated* on all sides."

The perfect participle in each voice is a single word.

The perfect participle is seldom used in the active voice except to form the present perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect tense; as, "I have *taught*." — "I had *taught*." — "I shall have *taught*."

In the passive voice it is used in forming all the tenses of the various modes; — it may also be used alone; as, "I am *loved*;" — "To be *loved*;" — "Washington died, *loved* by all."

The **preperfect participle** is one which represents an action, a being, or a state, as *completed* or *finished before some other action, being, or state*; as, "*Having reached* the summit, they sat down to rest."

The perfect participle is always *complex* in form, and in the active voice is made by placing *having*, and in

the passive voice, by placing *having been*, before the perfect participle; as, *having loved*; *having been taught*.

Participles and Infinitives are sometimes called *Verbals*.

A verbal may be defined as a word that is *derived from a verb*, and is used as a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*; as, "*To err* is human." — "*To think* is to know." — "*Reading* without purpose is a waste of time." — "He did not like *being teased*." — "He had the courage to *tell the truth*." — "Wealth *acquired* dishonestly is a curse." — "Our friends have come *to stay*." — "I was urged to *speak*."

REMARKS.

The imperfect and the preperfect participles are easily distinguished by their forms.

The perfect participle of regular and of most irregular verbs has the same form as the past tense; but the action, the being, or the state, or the state *expressed* by this participle is *not asserted of a subject*, as that of a finite verb is.

The *time* implied by the participle is present, past, or future, according to the tense of the principal verb with which it is used; as, "He lives, *respected* (*present*) by all that know him." — "He lived, *esteemed* (*past*) by his friends." — "He will live, *honored* (*future*) by his fellow-men."

When a participle is used merely to describe a noun or a pronoun, it is called a *Participial Adjective*; as,

"*Cultivated* fields surrounded the mansion."—"A *running* stream is a pleasant sight."

When a participle receives a prefix not found in the verb from which it is formed, it becomes an adjective simply, and is to be parsed as such; as *beloved*, *unloved*, *unhonored*.

When a participle ending with *ing* is used simply as the name of an action, a being, or a state, it is called a *Participial Noun*; as, "His *reading* is very indistinct."

EXERCISE.

Name the *participles* in the following sentences, and tell to which *class* each belongs; also, the participles used as *adjectives* and those used as nouns:

1. Still achieving, still pursuing, learn to labor and to wait.
2. The laborer exhausted by toil sank into a deep sleep.
3. The icicles hanging from the branches of the trees glistened in the sunlight.
4. The French, having entered Moscow, considered their sufferings at an end.
5. The complaining brooks make the meadows green.
6. The street, filled with its ever-shifting train, has been compared to life.

7. "'Tis some visitor," I muttered, "tapping at my chamber door."

8. The sentence of death pronounced upon the prisoner was received without emotion.

9. The confused throng swayed to and fro.

10. The army, returning with victorious eagles, entered the city in triumph.

11. Being driven by the gale the vessel was dashed against the rocky shore.

12. The Persians, having been defeated, returned to their own country.

13. His mind had been well disciplined by reading and observation.

14. The stream flows on its winding course through a richly cultivated valley.

15. I see thee weeping, trembling, captive led.

16. The defences of the city being battered down, the enemy entered.

17. Riches, justly obtained and rationally used, are a great blessing.

18. The services having been concluded, preparations were made to deposit the coffin in the earth.

19. How fast the flitting figures pass!

20. Cheating is a sure attendant upon gambling.

LESSON LXXIX.—INFINITIVES.

In olden times the infinitive form was said to be used generally with the preposition *to*. Goold Brown goes to considerable trouble to prove that the *to* used with an infinitive is a preposition. The word *to*, however, is not a preposition, as now understood, but part of the verb phrase forming the infinitive.

The Infinitive is used in various ways in the sentence. For instance, it has :

1. **A verbal use;** as, "I used *to play* with another team." — "The eclipse was *to be seen* before twelve o'clock." — "I am going *to play* ball tomorrow." — "I am bound *to acknowledge* my defeat."

2. **A substantive or noun use:**

(a) *As subject*; as "*To read* well is a valuable accomplishment."

(b) *As object*; as, "I like *to read*." — "I hope *to be* a painter."

3. **An adjective use;** as, "I have an invitation *to dine* with him." — "I have no time *to waste*." — "I have a strong desire *to be* rich."

4. **An adverbial use:**

(a) *As adverb of degree*; as, "We have money enough *to buy* a farm."

(b) *Conditional adverb*; as, "*To hear him talk, you would think that he owned the world.*"

(c) *Adverb showing result*; as, "*I came to find the place deserted.*"

(d) *Adverb showing reason*; as, "*You are foolish to worry over what you can not help.*"

(e) *Adverb showing purpose*; as, "*I came to look for you.*"

5. **Independent** use; as, "*Just to think! I came without my notes.*"—"To be sure, you are not to blame."—"To speak plainly, we do not wish to be interrupted."—"I to fail! It is preposterous."

EXERCISE.

Write five sentences in each of which an infinitive is used as a substantive or *noun*.

Write five sentences in which the infinitive is used as *adjective*.

Write five sentences in which the infinitive is used *adverbially*.

Write five sentences in which the infinitive is used *independently*.

LESSON LXXX.

CLASSES OF VERBS ACCORDING TO FORM.

STRONG AND WEAK VERBS.

Verbs may be divided into two classes, according to the way in which they form their past tense and perfect participle. These two classes are **strong** and **weak** verbs.

The **strong verbs** are those which form their tense by the change of a letter—the vowel for the past tense and the final letter for the past participle; as:

Present.	Past.	Perfect Participle.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Bid,	bade,	bidden.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.

Some verbs were said to be too weak to form the past tense and perfect participle within themselves, but had to have a syllable, or the contraction of a syllable, added to form these parts; as:

Present.	Past.	Perfect Participle.
Hunt,	<i>hunted,</i>	<i>hunted.</i>
Row,	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowed.</i>
Walk,	<i>walked,</i>	<i>walked.</i>

Present.	Past.	Perf. Participle.
Hope,	hoped,	hoped.
Love,	loved,	loved.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.

These weak verbs are much more numerous than the strong verbs, so that the forming of the past and perfect participles by adding *ed* was thought to be the common or regular way.

For this reason most grammarians classify verbs as Regular and Irregular Verbs; thus:

Verbs are divided, according to their formation, into two classes—Regular and Irregular.

A **regular verb** is one whose past tense and perfect participle are formed by suffixing *ed* to its present tense; as, pres., *love*; past, *loved*; perf. part., *loved*.

An **irregular verb** is one whose past tense or perfect participle, or both, are not formed by suffixing *ed* to its present tense; as, pres., *take*; past, *took*; perf. part., *taken*.



LESSON LXXXI.

THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS.

The *present tense*, the *past tense*, and the *perfect participle* are called the Principal Parts of a verb.

They are called the **principal parts** because, besides

being themselves tenses or parts of the verb, they aid in the formation of all the other tenses or parts of the verb.

The *present* form of a verb is used in the present and in the future tense of the indicative; in the present and in the past of the potential; in the present of the subjunctive, in the present of the imperative, and in the present of the infinitive.

The *past* form of a verb is used in the past tense in the indicative, and in the past of the subjunctive.

The present form and the past are never used in the passive voice.

The *perfect participle* is used after "have" and "had" in the active voice, and is used in forming all the tenses of the different modes in the passive voice.

Notice how the principal parts are shown in the following sentences:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. I <i>run</i> now. | 4. I <i>break</i> my pencils. |
| 2. I <i>ran</i> yesterday. | 5. I <i>broke</i> my pencil. |
| 3. I have <i>run</i> ten miles. | 6. I have <i>broken</i> my pencil. |

• We thus see the principal parts of the verbs *run* and *break* are as follows:

Present.	Past.	Perfect Participle.
Run,	ran,	run.
Break,	broke,	broken.

The following is a short table of the principal parts of a few verbs:

Present.	Past.	Perfect Participle.
Am,	was,	been.
Is,	was,	been.
Are,	were,	been.
Bear (to carry),	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten.
Bend,	bent,	bent.
Bereave,	bereft,	bereft.
Bid (command),	bade,	bidden.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke,	broken.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Eat,	ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Have,	had,	had.
Lie,	lay,	lain.
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Rise,	rose,	risen.

Present.	Past.	Perfect Participle.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Tear,	tore,	torn.

EXERCISE.

Write a sentence for each form of the words in the foregoing list.

**LESSON LXXXII.—AUXILIARY VERBS.**

An **auxiliary verb** is one which helps to form the modes and the tenses of other verbs.

The only tenses which may not be formed by means of auxiliaries are the present and the past of the indicative and the subjunctive, and the present of the imperfect and the infinitive, in the active voice; as, "I loved." — "Love thou;" — *to love*; and even these, except the present infinitives, have complex forms; as, "If I did love."

The auxiliary verbs are *be, do, have, will, can, may, shall, must, and need.*

REMARKS.

Be, do, have, need, and will are also complete or principal verbs; they are auxiliary, when used with a participle or with any other part of a principal verb.

Can, may, must, and shall are auxiliary verbs only.

Be is used as an auxiliary throughout all its parts in aiding to form the passive voice and the progressive form of other verbs.

Do is used as an auxiliary only in its present and in its past tense.

Have is used as an auxiliary in its present and its past tense, and in its imperfect participle.

Need is used as an auxiliary in its present tense, chiefly in sentences expressing requirement or obligation; as, "The messenger *need* not return." It makes one of the variations of the potential mode.

Can, may, shall, and will have each two tenses only, the present and the past; and *must* and *need* but one, the present.

FORMS OF AUXILIARY VERBS.

Present.	Past.	Pres. Part.	Perf. Part.
Am,	was,	being,	been.
Do,	did.	doing,	done.
Have,	had,	having,	had.
Shall,	should.		

Present	Past.	Pres. Part.	Perf. Part.
Will,	would.		
May,	might.		
Can,	could.		
Must.			
Need.			



LESSON LXXXIII.—CORRECT FORM.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS WITH THEIR SUBJECTS.

A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

A plural subject requires a plural verb. *You* requires a plural verb, even when it means a single person; as, “*You were present*,” not, “*You was present*.”

A verb in the imperative mode agrees with *thou* or *you* understood as its subject, although no subject is mentioned; as, “*Go (you understood) to your room*.”

When the subject of a verb is a phrase or a clause, used as a noun, the verb agrees with it in the singular number; as, “*To do good is desired by many*.”—“*Whoever hesitates is lost*.”

When a collective noun suggesting unity is the subject, the verb must be singular; as, “*The club holds its meetings in the hall*.”

When a collective noun suggesting plurality is used as subject, the verb must be plural; as, "The *clergy are* a fine body of men."

A verb having two or more subjects must be in the plural form; as, "The *statesman and the patriot are* both honorable men."

If, however, two or more subjects mean the same person or thing, the verb must be singular; as, "The *statesman and patriot is* an honorable man."

If the subject is modified by a distributive adjective, the verb must be singular; as, "*Every man, woman, and child was* slain."

If two or more subjects connected by *as well as*, *and*, *also*, etc., are used, the verb must agree with the first subject; as, "The old *bird as well as* her nestlings *was* caught."

When a verb has two or more subjects connected by *neither-nor* or *either-or*, the verb must be singular; as, "*Neither the time nor the place was* known."

If, however, one of the subjects is plural, the verb must be plural; as, "Neither the *mother nor her children were* saved."

A plural noun used as a title of a book is often plural in form but singular in meaning; as, "Johnson's *Lives of the Poets is* a great work."

A verb having two or more subjects of different persons is in the first person if any of the subject is in the first person; as, "She and I (we) are going."

If no subject is in the first person, but one is in the second person, the verb is in the second person; as, "*You* and *he are* going."

A verb having two or more subjects of different persons connected by *or* or *nor* must be in the same person with the subject nearest it; as, "He or I am going."

EXERCISE.

Rewrite the following sentences in proper form:

- (is)
1. To do well (are) better than to make promises.
- (hold) (its)
2. Congress (holds) (their) sessions in the capital city.
- (was)
3. The clergy (were) held responsible for the trouble.
- (deserve)
4. The patriot and statesman (deserves) honor.
- (was)
5. Every nerve and sinew (were) strained in the race.
- (was)
6. The father as well as his sons (were) lost.
- (were)
7. Neither the father nor the son (was) lost.

- (were)
8. Neither the father nor his sons (was) lost.
- (has)
9. The Lives of the Saints (have) been added to the library.
- (am)
10. He and I (are) going to the fair.
- (are)
11. You and he (is) going to the fair.
- (is)
12. He or I (am) going to town.
- (have)
13. Every plant and animal (has) a part to play in the economy of nature.
- (are)
14. He or I (is) to go to the meeting.
- (are)
15. Mathematics (is) a difficult study.



LESSON LXXXIV.—THE PARSING OF VERBS.

Parse the *verbs* in the following sentences:

1. "Success will attend his efforts, if he continue active."

MODELS.

Will attend. — *Success* will attend *efforts*. — “Will attend” is a verb; “A Verb is a word, etc.,” transitive, because it has an object (*efforts*); — regular, because its past tense and perfect participle are formed by suffixing *ed* to the present tense (pres. *attend*, past *attended*, perf. part. *attended*); — in the active voice, because it shows that the subject does the action asserted by the verb; — indicative mode, because it expresses a positive assertion; — future tense, because it denotes future time; — in the singular number, third person, because its subject *success* is, with which it agrees.

Continue. — (If) *he* continue. — “Continue” is a verb; “A Verb is a word, etc.,” — intransitive, etc.; — regular, etc. (pres. *continue*, past. *continued*, perf. part. *continued*); it has not voice, etc.; — subjunctive mode, etc.; — present tense, etc.; — in the singular number, third person, because its subject *he* is, with which it agrees.

2. “Write your letters, boys, that they may be taken to the post-office.”

Write. — Write (*you*) *letters*. — “Write” is a verb, etc.; — transitive, etc.; — irregular, etc. (*write*, *wrote*, *written*); — active voice, etc.; — imperative mode, etc.; — present tense, etc.; — in the plural number, second

person, because its subject (*you*, understood) is, with which it agrees.

May be taken. — *They* may be taken. — “May be taken” is a verb, etc.; — transitive, etc.; — irregular, etc. (*take, took, taken*); — passive voice, etc.; — potential mode, etc.; — present tense, etc.; — in the plural number, third person, because its subject *they* is, with which it agrees.

3 “If he is obliged to go, I can not prevent him.”

Is obliged. — (If) *he* is obliged. — “Is obliged” is a verb, etc.; — transitive, etc.; — regular, etc. (*oblige, obliged, obliged*); — passive voice, etc.; — indicative mode (*used subjunctively*, because it expresses uncertainty or contingency); — present tense, etc.; — in the singular number, third person, because its subject *he* is, with which it agrees.

To go. — *Is obliged* to go. — “To go” is a verb, etc.; — intransitive, etc.; — irregular, etc. (*go, went, gone*); it has no voice, etc.; — infinitive mode, etc.; — present tense, etc.; — it is not limited by number or person, because it has no subject; — it depends upon the finite verb *is obliged*, which it completes in meaning.

4. “Did all men show charity, how much misery would be prevented.”

Did show. — *Men* did show *charity*. — “Did show” is a verb, etc.; -- transitive, etc.; — irregular, etc. (*show, showed, shown*); — active voice, etc.; — subjunctive

mode, etc.; — past tense, etc.; — emphatic form, etc.; — in the plural number, third person, because its subject *men* is, with which it agrees.

Participles.—Parse the *participles*, etc., in the following sentences:

1. “The prisoner, convicted of murder, was sentenced to be hanged.”

MODELS.

Convicted. — *Prisoner* convicted. — “Convicted” is the perfect participle of the passive voice of the transitive regular verb “to convict” (imperf. *being convicted*, perf. *convicted*, preperf. *having been convicted*); — it describes the noun *prisoner*.

2. “The falling of the burning timbers caused the death of a fireman.”

Falling. — *Falling* caused. — “Falling” is the imperfect participle of the verb “to fall” (imperf. *falling*, perf. *fallen*, preperf. *having fallen*); — it is *used as a noun* in the singular number, third person, and of the neuter gender; — in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb *caused*.

Burning. — *Burning* timbers. — “Burning” is the imperfect participle of the verb “to burn” (imperf. *burning*, perf. *burned*, preperf. *having burned*); — it is *used as an adjective*; — it cannot be compared, and it describes the noun *timbers*.

EXERCISE.

Parse the *verbs*, the *participles*, the *participial adjectives*, and the *participial nouns* in the following sentences:

1. Bees make honey.
2. Revenge dwells in little minds.
3. The rich soil yielded fruit and flowers in abundance.
4. Virtue will procure esteem.
5. The bird has built her nest in the old tree.
6. The sultry heat of summer has passed away.
7. An angry man opens his mouth and shuts his eyes.
8. The hunter returned laden with the spoils of the chase.
9. Rome was founded in 753 before Christ.
10. The cottages of the peasants were consigned to the flames.
11. Reading maketh a full man.

**LESSON LXXXV.—CORRECT FORM.****PREDICATE NOUN OR PRONOUN.**

A noun or pronoun placed after a verb and meaning the same person or thing as the noun or pronoun preceding the verb should be in the same case; as, "*It is I.*" — "*It was he* who came last." — "I supposed *it* to be *him*."

PREDICATE ADJECTIVE AND PREDICATE POSSESSIVE.

Sometimes an adjective in the predicate modifies the subject. It is then a *Subjective Predicate Adjective*; as, "This apple is *good*."

Sometimes a possessive pronoun is placed in the predicate to modify the subject; as, "This book is *mine*."—"That book is *yours*."

EXERCISE.

Rewrite the following sentences. using the correct form.

- (who)
1. It is difficult to determine (whom) it was.
(Who)
 2. (Whom) do you suppose him to be?
(him) (her)
 3. If I were (he) or (she) I would make better use of my time.
-

LESSON LXXXVI.—ADVERBS.

An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, "They were *not* diligent, and advanced *very slowly* in their studies."

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs may be divided into five general classes — Adverbs of Manner, of Time, of Place, of Degree, and of Interrogation.

I. Adverbs of **manner** generally answer to the question, *How?* Most of them are formed from adjectives or participles by suffixing *ly*; and a few by suffixing *how* or *wise*.

Adverbs of manner may be divided as follows:

1. Of *quality*; as, *fain, ill, lief, so, thus, well, badly, easily, foolishly, gladly, sweetly, anyhow, somehow, likewise, otherwise*, etc.

2. Of *affirmation*; as, *amen, aye, certainly, doubtless, forsooth, indeed, surely, truly, verily, yea, yes*, etc.

3. Of *negation*; as, *nay, no, not, nowise*, etc.

4. Of *uncertainty*; as, *haply, may-be, mayhap, perhaps, perchance, peradventure, possibly, probably*, etc.

II. Adverbs of **time** generally answer to the question, *When? How long? How often? or How soon?*

The principal adverbs of time are *already, always, aye, daily, ever, forthwith, hourly, immediately, lately, now, never, often, seldom, since, then, till, until, weekly, yesterday, yet*, etc.; also, *once, twice, and thrice*.

III. Adverbs of **place** generally answer to the question, *Where? Whereabouts? Whence? or Whither?*

The principal adverbs of place are *anywhere, downward, elsewhere, hence, here, hither, nowhere, off, out, somewhere, thence, there, upward, where, wherever, yonder*, etc.; also, *first, secondly, thirdly*, etc., and such words as *singly, doubly, triply*, etc.

IV. Adverbs of **degree** generally answer to the question, *How much?* or *How little?* An adverb of degree usually qualifies an adjective or another adverb.

The principal adverbs of degree are *almost, altogether, as, enough, equally, even, much, more, most, little, less, least, only, quite, scarcely, so, very, wholly*, etc.

V. Adverbs of **interrogation** are used in asking questions.

The principal adverbs of interrogation are *how, when, whence, where, wherefore, whither, why*, etc.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Conjunctive adverbs are those which have the nature partly of the conjunction and partly of the adverb. In their *conjunctive use* they connect parts of sentences (clauses) with the words modified by the clauses. In their *adverbial use*, they modify some word in the clause in which they occur; as, "He claimed the right to defend himself *when* he was attacked."

Here the clause "*when he was attacked*" modifies *to defend* and is connected with the word it modifies by the conjunctive adverb *when*. In its adverbial use *when* modifies *was attacked*.

The principal conjunctive adverbs are *after, as, before, how, since, therefore, till, until, when, wherefore, while, and why*.

LESSON LXXXVII.—COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

The inflection of adverbs, like that of adjectives, is called Comparison.

A few adverbs are compared like adjectives by suffixing to the positive *er* to form the comparative, and *est* to form the superlative; as, positive *soon*, comparative *sooner*, superlative *soonest*.

Most adverbs that end with the syllable *ly* admit the form of comparison made by placing before the positive *more* or *less* to form the comparative, and *most* or *least* to form the superlative; as, positive *easily*, comparative *more easily*, superlative *most easily*; positive *frequently*, comparative *less frequently*, superlative *least frequently*.

In these examples the adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, only are inflected; these adverbs, therefore, should be parsed as qualifying the principal adverbs *easily* and *frequently*, which are compared, but not inflected.

The following adverbs are compared irregularly:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Badly,	worse,	worst.
Far,	farther,	farthest.
Ill,	worse,	worst.
Little,	less,	least.
Much,	more,	most.
Well,	better,	best.

REMARKS.

Many words are used sometimes as adverbs and sometimes as adjectives; as, "When employment *no longer* affords pleasure, it becomes drudgery;" here, *no* is an adverb, and qualifies the adverb *longer*. "When they lifted up their eyes, they saw *no* man;" here, *no* is an adjective, and limits the noun *man*.

The principal words which are either adverbs or adjectives, according to their use, are *better, best, first, last, little, less, least, much, more, most, near, no, still, well*, etc. These words are adverbs when they qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, and are adjectives when they describe or limit nouns or pronouns.

The adverb *there* is sometimes used without any definite meaning before a verb, or to begin a sentence; as, "*There* was nothing gained by the effort." When a question is asked, it is placed after the verb; as, "Breathes *there* a man with soul so dead?" When so used, *there* is called an **expletive**.

Adverbs are sometimes used independently of other words; as, "*Well*, the worst is past." — "Yes, Christianity must prevail over all lands."

NOTE.—Such words as the adverb *even* are sometimes used merely to give emphasis as, "He *even* pawned his clothes."—" *Even* the philosophers disagree."—"I, *even* I, am the Lord!" So, also, the adverb *surely* is often used to emphasize; as, "*Surely* you would not offend your friend!" Notice that these adverbs sometimes seem to modify nouns, but they only emphasize.

EXERCISE.

Tell to which *class* each of the following *adverbs* belongs, give the reason, and compare the adverb, if it can be compared:

Now, perhaps, hardly, hither, seldom, thrice, recently, doubly, often, somewhere, yea, well, upward, thence, enough, surely, sooner, quite, henceforth, indeed, never, already, secondly, here, possibly, undoubtedly, singly, no, farther, verily.

LESSON LXXXVIII.—PARSING OF ADVERBS.

Parse the *adverbs* in the following sentences:

1. "They are here, but they will soon leave."

MODELS.

Here. — *Are* here. — "Here" is an adverb; "An Adverb is a word, etc.;" — of place, it answers to the question, *Where?* — it cannot be compared; — it qualifies the verb *are*.

Soon. — *Will leave* soon. — "Soon" is an adverb; "An Adverb is a word, etc.;" — of time, it answers to the question, *When?* — it can be compared (pos. *soon*, comp. *sooner*, sup. *soonest*); — in the positive degree; — it qualifies the verb *will leave*.

2. "Act promptly when necessity requires it."

When. — *Act when requires* (when). — “When” is a conjunctive adverb; “A Conjunctive Adverb is one which connects its clause with the word that it qualifies, etc.,” — it cannot be compared; it modifies *requires*, and connects the clause *when necessity requires it* with the verb *act*, which the clause modifies.

EXERCISE.

Parse the *adverbs* in the following sentences.

1. The deep river flowed noiselessly.
2. How brightly shines the morning sun
3. He arose early and retired late.
4. His friend went to New York and thence sailed to London.
5. Washington was unanimously elected.
6. Still one was wanting.
7. The still night was bitterly cold.
8. Come when you shall have done your task.
9. Think deliberately and then act promptly.
10. There are few who fail when they apply themselves diligently.
11. There wanders one whom better days saw better clad.
12. A little mind may often dwell in a great body.
13. Well, death must come to us all.
14. Yes, he confessed his fault.
15. Even the philosophers disagree.

LESSON LXXXIX.—PREPOSITIONS.

A **preposition** is a word used before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some preceding word; as, "He travelled *from* New York *to* New Orleans."

A preposition with its object forms a *prepositional phrase*.

In the sentence, *from* shows the relation of the noun *New York* to the verb *travelled*; and *to* shows the relation of the noun *New Orleans* to the verb *travelled*, which both phrases modify.

The noun or the pronoun which follows the preposition is called the *object* of the relation denoted by the preposition, and is always in the objective case.

A preposition may also be followed by a participle, a verb in the infinitive mode, or a part of a sentence (phrase).

The following is a list of prepositions: *at, after, by, down, for, from, in, of, on, over, past, round, since, through, till, to, up, under, with.*

Some words which are generally prepositions become other parts of speech when not followed by an object; thus, *after, before, by, on, since, till, up, until*, etc., are sometimes adverbs; and *for* and *since* are sometimes conjunctions.

Before is (1) an Adverb, when it denotes *time* simply; as, "The Indians never saw a ship *before*."

Before is (2) a Preposition, when followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, "The world was *before* him." So also are *after*, *ere*, *till*, *until*.

For is (1) a Conjunction, when it connects parts of sentences (members), and is used in giving a reason; as, "They will never succeed, *for* they are inattentive."

For is (2) a Preposition, when it is followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, "Prizes were awarded *for* good conduct."



LESSON XC.—CONJUNCTIONS.

A **conjunction** is a word used to connect the words, the parts of a sentence, or the sentences, between which it is placed; as, "He is patient *and* happy, *because* he is a Christian."

In this example, *and* connects the words *patient* and *happy*, while *because* connects the parts of the sentence (members) *he is patient and happy* and *he is a Christian*.

Though relative pronouns connect the nouns or the pronouns to which they relate with subsequent parts

of sentences, yet they must never be called conjunctions. Some grammarians, however, call them *conjunctive pronouns*.

Other parts of speech, such as pronominal adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and prepositions, when used simply as connectives, should be called conjunctions.

Certain conjunctions are used in pairs, and are called *Correlative Conjunctions*.

The principal correlative conjunctions are: *as-so*, *although-yet*, *both-and*, *either-or*, *if-then*, *neither-nor*, *though-yet*, and *whether-or*.

Sometimes two or more words not united are taken together and form what is called a *Complex Conjunction*.

The principal complex conjunctions are: *as if*, *as well as*, *but that*, *forasmuch as*, *except that*, *even though*, *inasmuch as*, *seeing that*, etc.

EXERCISE.

Name all the *conjunctions* in the following sentences and state the kind:

1. Light and heat proceed from the sun.
2. If we cannot remove pain, we may at least alleviate it.
3. Both men went to sea, but only one returned.

4. The prisoner at the bar both planned and executed the deed, as I will prove.

5. The unhappy man acknowledged his weakness, yet persisted in the habit.

6. I will not argue with you; for, though I can convince your judgment, I cannot convert your heart.

7. Neither threat nor punishment moved him from his purpose.

8. The principal nobles were delivered up as hostages and were thrown into prison, although honorable treatment had been promised to them.

9. The ancient philosophers disputed whether the world was made by chance or by a divine mind.



LESSON XCI.—FIGURE OF SPEECH.

SIMILE.

Simile is the figure of speech by which a direct comparison is made by the use of such words as *like* or *as* between things not of the same kind; as, "The Assyrians came down *like* a wolf on the fold."

EXERCISE.

1. Select from literature five of the best similes that you can find in which the comparison is made by *like*.

2. Select in the same way five similes in which the comparison is made by *as*.

LESSON XCII.—FIGURE OF SPEECH.**METAPHOR.**

Metaphor is an expression of likeness between things that resemble each other, but without any comparison; as, "The warrior was a lion for strength and a fox for cunning." — "A ball of fire was in the sky, a blood spot in the sea."

EXERCISE.

Select from good literature five sentences containing metaphors.

**LESSON XCIII.—INTERJECTIONS.**

An **interjection** is a word used in exclamation, to express some emotion of the mind; as, *ha! pshaw! alas! halloo!*

CLASSES OF INTERJECTIONS.

The following are the principal classes of interjections:

Those expressive—

1. Of *joy* or *exultation*; as, *ah! aha! hey! hurrah! huzza!*
2. Of *sorrow*; as, *ah! alas! oh!*
3. Of *surprise* or *wonder*; as, *ha! indeed! what!*
4. Of *contempt* or *disgust*; as, *bah! faugh! fie! foh! humph! pah! pish! pshaw! tush! tut!*

5. Of *attention* or *calling aloud*; as, *ahoy! behold! halloo! hark! ho! lo! look! see! soho! whoa!*

6. Of *silence*; as, *hist! hush! mum! whist!*

7. Of *addressing, saluting, or taking leave*; as, *adieu! farewell! hail! good-by! good-day! O!*

8. Of *laughter*; as, *ha-ha! he-he! te-he!*

9. Of *interrogation*; as, *eh! hey!*

O is always a capital, and is used before the name of a person or thing addressed.



LESSON XCIV.

THE PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

EXERCISE.

Parse the *prepositions* in the following sentences:

1. "The tree is shaken by the wind."

MODEL.

By. — *Is shaken by wind.* — "By" is a simple preposition; "A Preposition is a word, etc.;" — it is used before the noun *wind* to show its relation to the verb *is shaken*.

2. "A sound of falling water issued from within the cavern."

From within. — *Issued* from within *cavern*. "From within" is a complex preposition; "A Complex Preposition is one composed of two or more prepositions not forming a single word, which together express one relation;" — it is used before the noun *cavern* to show its relation to the verb *issued*.

3. "Without industry, we can not succeed."

Without. — *Can succeed* without *industry*. — "Without" is a compound preposition; "A Compound Preposition is one usually formed, etc.;" — it is used before the noun *industry* to show its relation to the verb *can succeed*.

EXERCISE.

Parse all the *prepositions* in the following sentences:

1. Flowers bloom in summer.
2. Wreaths of smoke ascend through the trees.
3. Caesar paused upon the brink of the Rubicon.
4. Many are courageous from a dread of shame.
5. We cannot love our country with too pure an affection.
6. Better is a little with righteousness than great revenues without right.
7. One man, eminent above the others for strength, was chosen to lead them.

8. The influence of human actions reaches beyond the grave.

9. We sat upon a mossy bank beneath an aged pine, among whose branches the south wind made pleasant music, while below us, at a little distance, the waters of a tiny brook sang merrily as they danced swiftly down the slope, about to be lost in the flood of the mighty river.

10. Help from without one's self is often enfeebling in its effects, but help from within invariably invigorates.

EXERCISE.

Parse the *conjugations* in the following sentence; "Though truth and error each exerts great influence, yet truth must prevail, inasmuch as it is the greater power."

MODELS.

And. — *Truth* and *error*. — "And" is a conjunction; "A Conjunction is a word, etc.;" — copulative, because it denotes, etc.;—it connects the two nouns, *truth* and *error*, between which it is placed.

Though. — Though *truth* and *error* each exerts great influence, (yet) *truth* must prevail. — "Though" is a conjunction; "A Conjunction is, etc.;" — it is the correlative of *yet*, and with *yet* connects the two sentences above given.

Yet. — (Though) *truth and error each exerts great influence, yet truth must prevail.* — “Yet” is a conjunction; “A Conjunction, etc.,” — it is the correlative of *though*, and with *though* connects the two sentences between which it is placed.

Inasmuch as. — *Truth must prevail, inasmuch as it is the greater power.* — “Inasmuch as” is a complex conjunction; “A Complex Conjunction is, etc.,” — it connects the two sentences, *Truth must prevail, and it is the greater power*, between which it is placed.

EXERCISE.

Parse all the *conjunctions* in the following sentences:

1. Light and heat proceed from the sun.
2. If we cannot remove pain, we may at least alleviate it.
3. Both men went to sea, but only one returned.
4. The prisoner at the bar both planned and executed the deed, as I will prove.
5. The unhappy man acknowledged his weakness, yet persisted in the habit.
6. I will not argue with you; for, though I can convince your judgment, I cannot convert your heart.
7. Neither threat nor punishment moved him from his purpose.

8. The principal nobles were delivered up as hostages and were thrown into prison, although honorable treatment had been promised to them.

9. The ancient philosophers disputed whether the world was made by chance or by a divine mind.



LESSON XCV.—ARBOR CULTURE.

GRAFTING A TREE.

Inquire of some nurseryman or gardener:

1. Why do we split the stump of a limb?
2. Why do we make the graft even with the stump on the outside?
3. Why do we coat the joint with wax?
4. What makes the graft grow?
5. What kind of fruit will the graft bear?

Write an essay upon grafting, giving:

1. Reasons for grafting.
2. A clear description of the process of grafting, giving the reasons for each step in the process.
3. The benefits that will accrue to the owner of the trees.

LESSON XCVI.—CORRECT FORM.

ADVERBS.

An adverb should not be used as an adjective, nor should it ever be employed to denote quality; thus, "The *alone* idea," — "The *soonest* moment," etc., should be, "The *sole* idea," — "The *earliest* moment," etc.; "She looks *sweetly*," — "It tastes *bitterly*," etc., should be, "She looks *sweet*," — "It tastes *bitter*," etc.

The adverb *ever* is sometimes incorrectly used for *never*; as, "It rarely or *ever* (*never*) snows in this latitude."

No, as an adverb, can qualify comparatives only; as, "The task *no longer* appeared difficult." Therefore *no* should never be used after *or* to qualify a verb understood; "Will you go, or *no*?" should be, "Will you go, or (will you) *not* (go)?"

The adverb *how* should not be placed before the conjunction *that*; nor should *as*, *how*, or *as how*, be used for *that*; thus, "I am not sure *how* (or, *as how*) I can come," should be, "I am not sure *that* I can come."

In the use of the adverbs *when* and *where*, care should be taken not to employ them improperly for the pronoun *which* and its accompanying words; thus, "The hour *when* the train was due," should be, "The hour *in* (or *at*) *which*, etc." — "There was no family *where* he was

not welcome," should be, "There was no family *in which*, etc."

Two negatives should not be used in the same proposition if a negation is intended; as, "He can *not* do *any* harm," not "He can *not* do *no* harm."

A negative, however, may be repeated for the sake of emphasis; as, "We will *never, never, never*, lay down our arms."

When affirmation is intended, *not* may be used properly, and with pleasing effect, to qualify an adjective or an adverb having a negative prefix, such as *dis*, *in*, *im*, *un*, etc.; thus, "I am *not indisposed* to favor you," means, "I am *disposed* to favor you."

Adverbs should be placed near the words which they qualify. In general, an adverb precedes the adjective or the adverb which it qualifies, — and follows the verb, or is placed between the verb and its auxiliary; as, "He is *truly* happy." — "A *very carefully* written book." — "He fought *nobly*, and he was *nobly* rewarded."

An adverb should never be placed between the auxiliary *to* and the remainder of the infinitive; "To *not* know," should be "*Not* to know."

The improper position of the adverbs *chiefly*, *merely*, *only*, *not only*, *solely*, etc., often renders the meaning ambiguous. These should be placed next to the words

which they qualify; thus, "*Not only* he has forfeited all right to our esteem, but he also deserves severe punishment," should be, "He has *not only* forfeited, etc."

EXERCISE.

Write correctly the following sentences:

(prettily)

1. The little girl looks (pretty) in her new dress.

(soonest)

2. I shall come at the (earliest) possible moment.

(not)

3. I can not tell whether I shall go or (no).

(where)

4. There was no society (in which) William was not welcome.

(no)

5. John said that he could not do (any) more work today.

(not to)

6. Mary was supposed (to not) know her lesson.

(to never)

7. Try (never to) split your infinitives.

LESSON XCVII.—AGRICULTURE.**PLANTING WHEAT.**

Write a description of the process of *preparing the ground for wheat*.

Write also a description of the process of *planting the wheat*.

State clearly the reason for each process:

- (a) Plowing.
- (b) Harrowing.
- (c) Drilling.
- (d) Rolling.

What did the old farmers mean by "Oats in the mud and wheat in the dust?"

**LESSON XCVIII.—CORRECT FORM.****PREPOSITIONS.**

Care must be taken to use the proper preposition; as, "The boy jumped *into* (not *in*) the water." — "The boy swam *in* the water."

The following are a few words with the proper prepositions to be used with them:

Access <i>to</i> .	Different <i>from</i> , not <i>to</i> or <i>than</i> .
Acquaint <i>with</i> .	
Acquit <i>of</i> .	Disagree <i>with</i> a person; <i>to</i> a proposal.
Angry <i>with</i> a person, <i>at</i> a thing.	Disappointed <i>of</i> a thing not obtained; <i>in</i> a thing obtained.
Arrive <i>at</i> , <i>in</i> , not <i>to</i> .	
Averse <i>to</i> .	Expert <i>at</i> (before a noun); <i>in</i> (before an active participle).
Bestow <i>upon</i> .	Independently <i>of</i> , not <i>on</i> .
Call <i>on</i> a person, <i>at</i> a house, <i>for</i> a thing.	Inseparable <i>from</i> .
Compare <i>with</i> (in respect of quality); <i>to</i> (for illustration).	Martyr <i>for</i> a cause; <i>to</i> a disease.
Confide <i>in</i> (intrans.); <i>to</i> (trans.).	Need <i>of</i> .
Copy <i>after</i> a person; <i>from</i> a thing.	Partake <i>of</i> , <i>in</i> .
Correspond <i>with</i> , <i>to</i> .	Prefer, preferable, <i>to</i> .
Die <i>of</i> a disease; <i>by</i> an instrument, or violence; <i>for</i> another.	Reconcile a person <i>to</i> ; a thing <i>with</i> .
Differ <i>with</i> a person in opinion; <i>from</i> , in quality.	Rid <i>of</i> , not <i>from</i> .
	Touch <i>at</i> a place.
	Unite <i>to</i> (transitive); <i>with</i> (intransitive).
	Was <i>at</i> , not <i>to</i> (church).

EXERCISE.

Write in correct form the following sentences:

- (at)
1. John has access (to) his father's books.
(with)
- (for)
2. This man is acquitted (of) the charge of theft.
- (at)
3. I am angry (with) Mary's behavior, but I am more
(at)
angry (with) John.
- (at)
4. Mother is displeased (with) us for neglecting our
lessons.
- (to)
5. I am averse (for) John's having a latch key.
(at)
- (on) (at)
6. I shall call (at) John (in) his father's house.
(for)
- (after)
7. Do not copy (from) Mary with respect to behavior.
- (from)
8. You may copy your drawing (after) John's.
- (from)
9. I must differ (with) John concerning this statement.

- (to)
10. This book is different (from) that.
(than)
- (of)
11. I am rid (from) that nuisance at last.
- (of)
12. The man died (from) fever.
- (by)
13. This man died (from) violence.
(of)
14. I was (to) the party Saturday evening.
(at)



LESSON XCIX.

STUDY OF A POETICAL DESCRIPTION.

A PASTORAL SCENE.

[*Elegy written in a country church-yard—Gray.*]

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds,
Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds.

(a) Is this scene in the city or the country?

(b) What time of day is here described?

(c) How do we know this?

(d) What season of the year is it?

(e) Why?

(f) What objects would be shown in a painting of this scene?

Imagine the picture portrayed in these stanzas and write a prose description of the scene.



LESSON C.—CORRECT FORM.

CONJUNCTIONS.

The conjunction *than* should never be followed by a pronoun in the objective case. The conjunction *than* is often incorrectly used as a preposition; as, "The other boys ran faster *than us*," should be *than we* (ran).

After the verbs *doubt*, *fear*, etc., *whether* should not be used for *if*; — nor should *but*, *but that*, or *lest*, be used for *that*; thus, "I doubt *whether* he will come to-morrow," should be, "I doubt *if*, etc." — "He was afraid *lest* you would fail," should be, "He was afraid *that* you would fail."

When words or clauses are connected by correlatives, care must be taken to use those which correspond with each other; thus:

Both — *and*; as, "Observe the rules *both* here *and* elsewhere."

Either — *or*; as, "He is *either* foolish *or* insane."

Neither — *nor*; as, "He would *neither* assent *nor* deny."

Not only — *but also*; as, "*Not only* safety, *but also* justice, required his death."

Though — *yet*; as, "*Though* mild in manner, *yet* firm in principle."

Whether — *or*; as, "He could not decide *whether* to go *or* to remain."

As (adv.) — *as* (conj.) express equality when used with an adjective or an adverb; as, "The accomplice is *as* bad *as* the thief."

As (conj.) — *so* (conj.) express equality or proportion when used with two verbs; as, "*As* cold water (is) to the thirsty soul, *so* is good news from a far country."

So (adv.) — *as* (conj.) deny equality when used with an adjective or an adverb; as, "You were not *so* fortunate *as* I."

So (adv.) — *as* (conj.) with an adjective or an adverb express a limited comparison; as, "Be *so* kind *as* to read this letter."

So (adv.) — *that* (conj.) express a consequence when followed by a finite verb; as, “*So* live, *that* you may not fear to die.”

EXERCISE.

Write properly the following sentences:

1. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{No one} \\ \text{None} \end{array} \right\}$ can run faster than (I).
(us)
2. You can do better than (we).
(if)
3. I doubt (whether) your father will come.
(or)
4. John is neither too tall (nor) too short.
(as)
5. Will you be (so) kind as to lend me your pencil?
(so)
6. You were not (as) lucky as your brother was.



LESSON CI.—CORRECT FORM.

INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE.

Many persons use the indicative mode incorrectly for the subjunctive; as, “If I *was* you,” for “If I *were* you.”

Notice the difference in the following sentences:

If I were ill I should go to bed.

If I was ill yesterday I am not ill today.

Were I sure I would know what to do.

Was I sure? I certainly was not.

If he were lame he could not play ball.

If he was lame he is well now, for he can play ball.

EXERCISE.

Re-write the following exercise, using the indicative and subjunctive forms correctly:

1. If John ——— here we could play.
2. If John ——— here he has gone.
3. If wishes ———horses, beggars might ride.
4. If mother ——— here I could be content.
5. If it ——— true then, it is not true now.
6. If it ——— true I could scarcely believe it.

PART III.

S U M M A R Y.

LESSON CII.—THE SENTENCE.

The **sentence** is the instrument or means of which we express our thoughts in language. Like the dentist's instrument, it has its *Essential* parts and the different blades and bits—the *Modifying* elements. It has also its *Connecting* parts and its *Independent* parts.

The *Essential* parts of the sentence are the *Subject* and the *Predicate*.

The *Subject* is the part about which something is said or predicated.

The *Predicate* is the part that says or predicates something about the subject.

The *Simple Subject* is the *noun* or *pronoun*, or *some word*, *phrase*, or *clause used as a noun*, about which something is said in the predicate.

The *Simple Predicate* is the *finite verb* which predicates something of the subject.

The *Complete Subject* is the *simple subject taken with all its modifiers*.

The *Complete Predicate* is the *simple predicate taken with all its modifiers*.

When two or more *subjects* are used in one proposition they form a *Compound Subject*.

When two or more *predicate verbs* are used in the proposition they form a *Compound Predicate*.

The *Modifiers* of the subject may consist of *words, phrases, or clauses*.

The *Subject* itself may consist of a *word, a phrase, or a clause*.

The *Predicate* must consist of one or more verbs or verb phrases.

The following sentences illustrate the different forms of a sentence:

1. Simple sentence with single subject and predicate:

Boys | run.

2. Simple sentence with compound subject:

Boys and girls | play.

3. Simple sentence with compound predicate:

Boys | run and jump.

4. Simple sentence with both subject and predicate compound:

Boys and men | work and play.

5. Simple sentence with phrase used as subject:
Committing to memory | improves the mind.
6. Simple sentence with verb phrase predicate:
The boys | should have been punished.
7. Complex sentence with clause used as subject:
(Whoever runs) | may read.
8. Infinitive as subject:
(To play) | is healthful.
9. Participial phrase as subject:
(Playing ball) | is healthful.
10. Subject with word (adjective) modifier:
A brainy boy | will succeed.
11. Subject with phrase modifier used as adjective:
A boy with brains | will succeed.
12. Subject with clause modifiers used as adjective:
A boy who has brains | will succeed.
13. Sentence with noun used as object of verb
We | met the people at the door.
14. Sentence with clause used as object:
We | met whoever came,

LESSON III.—INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

Independent Parts of the Sentence. — Words and phrases which denote persons or things addressed or uttered in conversational sentences containing such words, interrogative and exclamatory sentences, as, “*Charles*, when did you come?” — “*My dear friend*, I am glad to see you.” — “*O, what joy* did his soul!” — “*Well*, the time has come.”

The independent parts are words which are used as the names of persons or things addressed or uttered in conversational sentences containing such words, interrogative and exclamatory sentences, as, “*Charles*, when did you come?” — “*My dear friend*, I am glad to see you.” — “*O, what joy* did his soul!” — “*Well*, the time has come.”

The words or the phrases also which denote merely subjects of thought, which stand apart, or are used parenthetically, are usually independent parts; as, “*The boy* — *he* where was he?” — “*Truth* — what is it?” — “*For my part*, it was very unexpected.”



LESSON CIV.

THE QUALIFICATIONS OF THE SIMPLE SUBJECT.

The *Simple Subject*, when it is a noun, may be modified in the following ways:

1. By an article; as, “*The* hour has come.”

2. By an explanatory (appositional) noun or pronoun in the nominative case; as, "*Friend William* has come." — "John *himself* has come." — "James, *the blacksmith*, is strong."

3. By a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case; as, "*Pleasure's* hour has come." — "*My* hour has come."

4. By an adjective; as, "*Pleasant* hours were spent." — "*Every* man sins."

5. By a participle; as, "*Hours appointed* have begun."

6. By an infinitive; as, "*Hours to be improved* have begun."

7. By a prepositional phrase; as, "*Hours of rest* have come."

8. By a clause; as, "*Men who will work* have come." — "*Proofs that he was guilty* were numerous."

When the simple subject is a pronoun, it may have all the modifications of a noun, except that made by a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case.

When the simple subject is a noun, it may have all the preceding modifications in the same sentence.

EXERCISE.

Write sentences in which the simple subjects are modified as in the foregoing examples.

LESSON CV.

THE QUALIFICATIONS OF WORDS QUALIFYING
THE SIMPLE SUBJECT.

Qualifying words may themselves be modified; thus:

I. A noun may be modified in all respects as the subject noun.

II. An adjective may be modified:

1. By a prepositional phrase; as, "Full *of care*."
2. By an adverb; as, "*Very* full of care."
3. By an infinitive; as, "Heavy *to be borne*."

The qualifying adverb may itself be modified:

1. By a prepositional phrase; as, "Your letter, *very* full, *agreeably to promise*, of interesting news, has been received."
2. By another adverb; as, "Demands *not* very exorbitant may be satisfied."

III. An infinitive, or a participle, may be modified:

1. By an object; as, "Quickness *to take offence* should be avoided." — "A rule directing *you* shall be given."
2. By a prepositional phrase; as, "The time *to act with energy* has come." — "A man acting *with promptness* is needed."

3. By an adverb; as, "The time to act *promptly* has come." — "A man acting *promptly* may gain his aim."

4. By an infinitive; as, "The time to begin *to improve* has come." — "Moments requiring *to be improved* are now here."

An infinitive, or a participle, with its modifiers, constituting a phrase, may be used as a simple subject.

The participle when thus used may be qualified by a possessive; as, "*His* telling the truth saved his life."

An infinitive, or a participle, when used as a subject, may be qualified by a noun, an adjective, or a participle used independently (or abstractly); as, "To be a *man*." — "To be *virtuous*." — "To live never *seeing* the light of day." — "Being a *man*," etc.

It seems necessary to state here, that the infinitive or the participle may have, either when qualifying the subject or when constituting a subject, the qualifications of the simple predicate or predicate-verb.

The nominative independent may be qualified in nearly every respect as the subject-nominative is qualified.

In like manner, the nouns or the pronouns in independent parts, which denote mere subjects of thought, etc., may be qualified.

LESSON CVI.

THE QUALIFICATIONS OF THE SIMPLE
PREDICATE.

The simple predicate or predicate-verb may be completed or modified in the following ways:

I. It may be completed by a noun or a pronoun in the nominative case, which means the same person or thing as the subject-nominative; as, "Kings are *men*." — "I am *he*." — "Napoleon was proclaimed *emperor*." — "Pompey retired *victor*."

The predicate-verb is thus completed only when it is an intransitive verb, or a transitive verb in the passive voice.

The qualifier may be called the *predicate-nominative*.

This qualifier may be added by means of the conjunction *as*; as, "He acted as *mediator*."

II. By a noun or a pronoun in the objective, called an object complement; as, "They found *gold*."

The predicate-verb is thus completed only when it is a transitive verb or an intransitive verb used transitively, in the active voice.

III. The predicate-verb may also be modified in the following ways:

1. By a prepositional phrase; as, "He came *to school*."

2. By an adjective describing or limiting the subject, called a subjective predicate adjective; as, "Truth is *eternal*."

3. By a predicate relating to the subject; as, "He came *running*."

4. By an adverb; as, "William came *speedily*."

5. By an infinitive; as, "He came *to see*."

6. By a clause used as object; as, "William discovered *that he was ignorant*."

One predicate-verb may have nearly all the preceding qualifications in the same sentence.

THE QUALIFICATIONS OF THE WORDS WHICH QUALIFY THE SIMPLE PREDICATE.

Words which qualify the simple predicate may themselves be qualified in all the ways in which the same parts of speech occurring in the complete subject are qualified.

An infinitive or a participle may receive all the qualifications that the predicate-verb may take.

An infinitive or a participle, with or without qualifications, may constitute a predicate-nominative; as, "To see is *to believe*."

EXERCISE.

Write a sentence in which the simple predicates are modified as in the foregoing examples.

LESSON CVII.—THE DIAGRAM.

Diagram the following sentences, using the *fourth* letter diagram, as follows:

“The thunder of the cannon shook the city.”

Simp. Dec.		thunder (<i>subj.</i>)
		the (<i>art.</i>)
		of cannon (<i>phrase as adj.</i>)
		the (<i>art.</i>)
		shook (<i>pred.</i>)
		city (<i>direct obj.</i>)
		the (<i>art.</i>)

2. “William discovered that he was ignorant.”

	William (<i>subj.</i>)
	discovered (<i>pred.</i>)
	that (<i>conj.</i>)
	he (<i>subj.</i>)
	was (<i>pred.</i>)
	ignorant (<i>sub. pred. adj.</i>)

3. The soft breezes of early summer are rustling the leaves.

4. The strength of his mind overcame every calamity.

5. Man, the occupant of the soil, was as wild as the savage scene.

6. Thoughtless of beauty, she was beauty's self.

7. The order to unfurl the sails was obeyed with alacrity.

8. The practice of embalming was common in ancient Egypt.

9. To what holier service can a nation's lifetime be devoted?

10. Alexander, the conqueror of the Persian empire, died in Babylon.

11. The preservation of our civil and religious rights demands prompt and unwearied action.

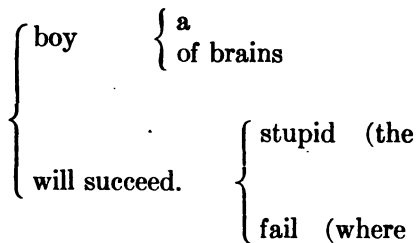
12. Conscience, enlightened by the word of God, is a faithful monitor.

13. An active daily press, vigilant from party interest, watches the progress of society.

LESSON CVIII.—THE DIAGRAM.

Diagram the following, using the brace to indicate modifiers; as:

1. "A boy of brains will succeed where the stupid fail."



2. Youth, unadmonished by a guide, will trust to any fair outside.

3. Overhead bends the blue and sunny sky.

4. The whole mountain-side on the western bank of the river above Thebes is one vast city of the dead.

5. A friendly Indian, pursuing the chase, met them.

6. Wild-looking men with black, snaky locks and eyes that shone like the torches, were devouring their macaroni.

7. In a remote field stood a large tulip-tree, apparently of a century's growth.

8. Was there not true heroism in this boy's conduct?

LESSON CIX.—PHRASES.

CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASES.

A phrase may be named according to the part of speech to which its principal or leading word belongs, or according to the manner in which it qualifies.

Phrases are named from their leading word, as follow :

1. The Prepositional Phrase; as, "*He came with his father.*"
2. The Infinitive Phrase; as, "*The rain descends to water the earth.*"
3. The Participial Phrase; as, "*Being planted in good soil, the tree grew rapidly.*"

USE OF PHRASES.

A phrase may be used:

1. As an adjective; as, "*The top of the mountain is above the clouds.*"
2. As an adverb; as, "*The child played by the babbling brook.*"
3. As subject; as, "*To see the sun is pleasant.*"
4. Absolutely; as, "*The wind having died away, the sails flapped idly against the masts.*"
5. Independently; as, "*O long expected day! begin.*"

EXERCISE.

Construct sentences, using phrases as they are used in each of the foregoing examples.

**LESSON CX.—CLAUSES.****CLASSIFICATION OF CLAUSES.**

A Clause may be named from its leading word. The following are the most important clauses:

1. **The Relative Clause**, introduced by a relative pronoun; as, "*He who runs* may read." — "*The wisdom which is from above*, is first pure."

2. **Adverbial Clause**; as, "*The tree lay where it fell.*" Here the clause is introduced by the conjunctive adverb *where*.

3. **Conjunctional Clause**; as, "*Although the colonies declared their independence in 1776*, our government did not take its present form until 1789."

USE OF CLAUSES.

A Clause may be used:

1. As a Noun:

(a) As Subject; as, "*Who did it* is not known." — "*That all men are mortal* needs no argument."

(b) As Object; as, "I learned *where he lived*." — "The wise man knows *that he is ignorant*."

(c) As Appositive; as, "The proverb, *Wealth begets want*, is not clear to all." When used as subject, object, or in apposition, clauses are used as nouns and are called noun clauses.

2. As Adjective Modifier; as, "The man *who toils* will win."

3. As Adverbial Modifier; as, "I waited *until the hour had expired*." — "The tree lay *where it fell*."

EXERCISE.

Construct sentences, using clauses as they are used in each of the foregoing examples.



LESSON CXI.

SUMMARY OF RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITALS.

- I. Every **sentence** must begin with a capital.
- II. Every **line of poetry** must begin with a capital.
- III. A **quotation that forms a sentence** must begin with a capital; as, The preacher said, "All is vanity."

NOTE.—When a quotation does not form a sentence, or consists of a phrase only, it does not begin with a capital, unless it happens to begin with a word that is capitalized for other reasons.

IV. Proper nouns must begin with capitals.

NOTE.—In complex geographical names both parts are capitalized if both form part of the name; as, Jersey City, New York City, Ohio River, Rocky Mountains.

V. The names of Deity must begin with capitals.

VI. Pronouns denoting Deity must begin with capitals.

VII. Titles must begin with capitals.

VIII. Letters indicating degrees must be capitals; as, A.M., Ph.D.

IX. The names of things personified must begin with capitals.

X. Proper adjectives must begin with capitals.

XI. The pronoun I must be a capital.

XII. The interjection O must be a capital.

XIII. The names of the months must begin with capitals.

XIV. The names of the days of the week must begin with capitals.

NOTE.—The names of the seasons *do not* begin with capitals unless used in *Personification*.

XV. The important words in a heading must begin with capitals.

NOTE.—Prepositions and conjunctions are not the important words; the nouns, verbs, and adjectives in a heading are the important words.

EXERCISE.

Use capitals properly in copying the following exercises:

1. howe'er it be, it seems to me
'tis only noble to be good;
kind hearts are more than coronets,
and simple faith than norman blood.
2. the teacher said, "do not be discouraged."
3. god is love in his name we trust.
4. mr. smith was inaugurated president of his society
on monday, march 21st.
5. miss jones was married on wednesday march 30th
by the rev. dr. william r. simpson.
6. i have upon my shelf the following books: joaquin
miller's "the building of the city beautiful"; hawthorne's
"the house with seven gables"; and eugene field's "the
singing in god's acre."

**LESSON CXII.****SUMMARY OF RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.****THE PERIOD.**

I. A **period** must be placed after every sentence that is **declarative** or **imperative**; as, "Go to the ant, thou sluggard."—"The Gulf Stream is a river in the sea."

II. A **period** must be used after every abbreviation; as, Rev. for reverend; A.B. for Bachelor of Arts; Y.M.C.A. for Young Men's Christian Association.

NOTE.—In using an abbreviation care must be taken to use the proper abbreviation.

NOTE.—Will, Jake, etc., are not abbreviations, but nicknames.

III. Letters and Figures used to indicate serial numbers must be followed by periods.

EXERCISE.

Use *capitals* and *periods* correctly in copying the following sentences:

1. please send to my address, c o d five yds of cloth like the enclosed sample
2. j g whittier the poet wrote snow bound
3. chas I was beheaded a d 1649
4. martin g brumbaugh, Ph D , LL D is supt of schools in philadelphia
5. the quotation may be found in vol I chap VI p 75
6. three questions must be answered: 1 who did it?
2 when was it done? 3 where was it done?

LESSON CXIII.—THE INTERROGATION.

Rule.—An Interrogation point (?) must be placed after every question; as, “Who wrote ‘Snow-Bound’ ”?

NOTE.—An interrogation point generally, not always, marks the end of a sentence; hence the following word generally, not always, begins with a capital; as, “The question, What do we live for? is a solemn one.” Sometimes, by the omission of a common part, several questions are thrown together, so as to form one sentence; in which case an interrogation point must be placed after each question, because each requires a separate answer; as, “Whence did he come? with whom? for what purpose?” When, however, the common part is reserved for the final question, but one interrogation point is required; as “Whence, with whom, for what purpose, did he come?” This note is also applicable to the exclamation point.



LESSON CXIV.—THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

Rule.—The Exclamation point is used after every expression or sentence that denotes strong emotion; as, “How are the mighty fallen!”—“Alas! I am undone.”

NOTE 1. Interjections.—An interjection is generally followed by an exclamation point. But when the interjection is unemphatic, it may be followed by a comma, or by no point at all; as, “Oh, yes.”

NOTE 2. O and Oh.—A distinction is to be observed in the use of *O* and *Oh*. The former we will call the “vocative *O*,” and the latter, the “emotional *Oh*.”

Vocative *O*.—Vocative *O* is used before a noun in excited address, and is not followed by any point; as, “O Liberty!”—“O my Country!”

Emotional Oh.—Emotional *Oh* is chiefly used to denote wishing, suffering, surprise, or admiration, and is followed by an exclamation point or a comma. The following are examples: Wishing; as, “Oh, that he were here!”—Suffering; as, “Oh! I am hurt.”—Surprise; as, “Oh! look out!”—Admiration; as, “Oh, how beautiful!”

EXERCISE.

Copy the following exercise, using capitals, periods, interrogation points, and exclamation points where necessary:

who is coming tomorrow—oh i hope that it is aunt mary—how i would like to see her—oh how beautiful the roses are—where can i find a vase for. them—O grave where is thy victory—O death where is thy sting O liberty how many crimes are committed in thy name



LESSON CXV.

QUOTATION MARKS.

The **quotation marks** (“ ”) are used to enclose the exact words quoted from a speaker or writer.

Example.—“Let these words be remembered: ‘Touch not, taste not, handle not.’ ”

A quotation within a quotation must be enclosed by single marks.

If there are other quotations included within included quotations, they must have double marks, and so on alternately.

Examples.—1. What a world of meaning is conveyed in the expression, “There shall be no Alps!”

2. The teacher said, “What meaning is conveyed by the expression, ‘There shall be no Alps!’ ”

3. The teacher said, “I find in my book the following sentence: ‘Trench says, “What a lesson is contained in the word ‘diligence’!” ’ ”

A divided quotation must have both parts enclosed by marks; as, “I have been convinced,” said he, “that I am wrong.”

When successive paragraphs are quoted, the marks are placed at the beginning of each paragraph, but the closing marks are placed only at the close of the last paragraph.

EXERCISE.

Use quotation marks, capitals, etc., correctly in copying the following exercise:

1. if said the teacher you finish your task before I return you may be dismissed at once
2. to arms to arms shouted the captain

3. trench says what a lesson is contained in the word diligence

4. in my book is the following sentence: Trench says what a lesson is contained in the word diligence.



LESSON CXVI.—THE COLON.

The **colon** denotes a degree of separation less than that shown by the period, and greater than that indicated by the semicolon.

NOTE.—It is now used exclusively for the specific purposes indicated in these examples.

I. A colon may be placed between the extended members of a compound sentence, when they are not connected by conjunctions mentioned, or when their parts are separated by semicolons and commas.

Examples.—1. “In the Bible, the body is said to be more than the raiment, but the opinion nowadays seems to be, that the raiment is more than the body: a great many people, it would seem, read this text, as they do others, that is, backward.”

2. “We must get out of the shadow of an object to see it; we must recede from it, to comprehend it: so we must compare the present with all our past impressions, if we would make out the truth which is common to them all.”

II. A colon must be placed at the end of the expressions *as follows*, *the following*, *thus*, *these*, *these words*, etc., or of parts containing these or their equivalents, when they introduce a series of particulars or a direct quotation.

Examples.—1. “The means devised by man to communicate his thoughts and feelings are the *following*: gestures, inarticulate sounds, spoken language, and written language.”

2. “Mr. Webster supposes John Adams to have spoken *these words*: ‘Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote.’ ”

In introducing a direct quotation of considerable length, the expressions *as follows*, *the following*, etc., are often omitted; as, “He arose and said: ‘Mr. Chairman, I propose, etc.’ ”

The colon is less used than it was formerly, a period or a semicolon taking its place.

III. Yes or No, when used to answer a question, is usually followed by a colon if the words following are practically a repetition of the question; as, “Can you solve this problem?” “Yes: I can solve it.” Some writers, however, prefer the semicolon, and some the comma. The latter is in the interest of simplicity, though there are cases where the use of a particular one of the marks suggested is best; as,

“Can you do this?” “Yes: I have often done it.”

“Can you do this?” “No; for I have never learned how.”

“Will you go to school?” “No, mother, not today.”

When Yes or No is followed by a noun the colon is placed after the noun; as, “No, sir: I will not do it.” — “Yes, my lords: I am ready to proceed.”

IV. A colon is used after a clause or member which is complete in itself, but is followed, without a conjunction, by some remark or explanation or inference; as, “I give you my sympathy: you would be insulted if I offered money.” — “To reason with him was useless: his mind was set.”

Notice that if we use the conjunction *for*, we would use the semicolon; as, “To reason was useless; for his mind was made up.” — “I returned to the brook: my purse had disappeared.”



LESSON CXVII.—THE SEMICOLON.

The **semicolon** denotes a degree of separation less than that shown by the colon, and greater than that indicated by a comma.

1. A semicolon must be placed between the members of a compound sentence when the connection is closer

than that which would require a colon, especially when the conjunctions are omitted.

Examples.—"Brutes are governed by instinct; man, by his reasoning faculties." — "His confidence in the success of his enterprise was not the idle dream of a mere enthusiast; it was founded in reason and based upon science."

When the members are short and connected by conjunctions, a comma is usually the separating point; as, "The sword is mighty, but the pen is mightier."

2. A semicolon is used in a complex sentence to separate successive clauses having a common dependence upon one or more principal members.

Example.—"If I have laid down my premises correctly; if I have reasoned clearly; if I have proved my assertions; how can you withhold your assent?"

3. A semicolon must be placed at the end of a statement which, without any intervening word, is followed by the particulars referred to, when these particulars are separated by commas.

Example.—"Mankind is divided into five races; the Caucasian, the Mongolian, the Ethiopian, the Malay, and the American."

NOTE.—Instead of the semicolon, some authors here use the colon.

4. A semicolon must be placed before *as*, when it is followed by an illustration.

Example.—"That often means in order that; as, 'Live virtuously, that you may die happy.'"

EXERCISE.

Copy the following exercises properly:

1. A wise son maketh a glad father but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.

2. A wise son maketh a glad father a foolish one a sad mother.

3. Nouns have three persons the first the second and the third.

4. I have just read three books The Philosophy of Wealth by Clark The Premises of Political Economy by Patten and An Honest Dollar by Andrews.

5. A noun is a name as, man, horse.



LESSON CXVIII.—THE COMMA.

The **comma** denotes the least degree of separation.

It is used, in general, to set off those parts of sentences which, though closely connected, still need some point after them to mark the pauses or interruptions in the flow of words.

1. A comma is used to separate the short members of compound sentences, when the members are connected by conjunctions.

Example.—"There was a pause of death-like stillness, and the bold heart of Macpherson grew faint."

2. Subordinate clauses, not restrictive, are generally set off by commas.

Example.—"My brother, who is a college student, takes great interest in athletics."

NOTE.—1. Restrictive clauses or phrases must be set off by commas from the words which they limit, unless words intervene between the clauses and the limited words.

2. A clause is *restrictive* when it limits a particular word to a specific meaning; as, "The boy *who came* was rewarded; the other was not."

3. A clause is *non-restrictive* or *circumstantial* when it does not restrict a particular word to a specific meaning; as, "This boy, who is my son, came with me."

3. Inverted (or transposed) clauses, phrases, and adjuncts, must usually be set off by commas.

Examples.—"When he came, I know not." — "Of all vices, impurity is one of the most detestable."

When the connection is very close, the inverted phrase or adjunct is not thus set off; as, "In Rome he dwelt."

4. Parenthetical clauses, phrases, adjuncts, and words, that is, those clauses, etc., which occur between other parts and interrupt the connection, must be set off by commas.

Examples.—"The clergy, *as it has been before remarked*, were the most intelligent and wealthy portion of the population." — "We may, *generally speaking*, depend upon this rule." — "This movement was, *without doubt*, demanded by public opinion." — "I shall, *nevertheless*, make good my promise."

Qualifying phrases and adjuncts, neither inverted nor parenthetical, may be set off by commas, when not very closely connected, for the sake of prominence or emphasis; as, "These seamen had become habituated to the storms of the ocean, by battling tempests in the Northern seas around Iceland, in their yearly fishing excursions."

5. Similar parts of speech, or similar expressions constituting a series, must be separated by commas.

Examples.—"A great mind, a great heart, a great orator, and a great career, have been consigned to history." — "He was a man, patient, sober, honest, and industrious."

6. A complex subject consisting of several parts which require commas between them, or one ending with a verb, must be separated from its predicate by a comma.

Examples.—"Ranges and groups of lofty mountains, deep valleys through which rush rapid streams, and numberless lakes set in the midst of grand old forests,

are the characteristics of this primitive region." —
"Whatever is, is right."

When a clause introduced by *that*, a quoted sentence, or a long infinitive phrase, is used as a subject, it must be set off from its predicate.

Examples.—"That peace and righteousness shall ultimately prevail over all the earth, is the belief of every pious heart." — "'Know thyself,' was the response of the Delphic Oracle."—"To seal their testimony to the truth with the surrender of their lives, was often the lot of the early Christians."

Words taken in pairs must have a comma after each pair.

Example.—"The young and the old, the rich and the poor, the wise and the foolish, here meet on a common level."

7. When a verb is omitted to avoid repetition, a comma takes its place.

Example.—"Reading makes a full man; conference, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."

8. Words or clauses denoting opposition of meaning, or contrast, must be separated by commas.

Examples.—"Return a kindness, not an injury." —

"Brief, but decisive, was the struggle." — "Did he act wisely, or unwisely?"

Correlative clauses, unless very short, are usually set off by commas; but words, phrases, or short clauses, connected by *than*, are not set off, unless for the sake of emphasis; as, "The farther we advanced into the interior, the greater our difficulties became." — "Nothing is clearer than the truth of this statement."

9. An appositional phrase must be set off by commas from the word or the words which it qualifies.

Example.—"Cicero, *the great Roman orator*, was slain to gratify the revenge of Antony."

Nouns in apposition, except with the pronoun *I*, are not set off by commas; as, "Cicero *the orator* was pursued and slain." — "We *consuls* are merciful." — "I, *James Brown*, do solemnly affirm."

10. The following are also set off by commas:

(a) Words or phrases used independently; as, "*My friend*, you are wrong."—"Charles, *farewell*."—"To say *the least*, it was unfair."

(b) Absolute phrases; as, "*Her health failing*, her disposition became more and more gloomy."

(c) An equivalent word or expression introduced by *or*; as, "Arithmetic, *or the science of numbers*, was introduced into Europe by the Arabians."

(d) Repeated words or phrases; as, “ ‘*Treason, treason, treason,*’ re-echoed from every part of the house.”

(e) A clause introducing a short quotation, ending it, or separating its parts; as, “ ‘Truth,’ said the speaker, ‘must be our sole aim.’ ”

(f) Whatever clause, phrase, or word would occasion ambiguity, if not set off by a comma; as, “I have seven brave sons, *and daughters.*”

EXERCISE.

Copy the following exercise, using the proper marks:

1. I believe him because I have always found him truthful.

2. The good shall be rewarded but the wicked shall be punished.

3. The man who stands in the alcove is my brother.

4. The boy who is larger than the man is his son.

5. That man who is my friend assures me that I am right.

6. No man who is a real friend would deceive.

7. The child was much attached to his teacher who loved him dearly.

8. Every teacher must love a child who is docile.

9. When the wicked entice thee consent thou not.

10. This however is not the answer.

11. His answer moreover is incorrect.

12. Happiness therefore depends on yourself.
13. It is mind after all that moves the world.
14. We should live soberly righteously and piously.
15. We should live soberly righteously piously in a fleeting world.
16. The principal metals are gold silver iron copper mercury tin and lead.
17. Can flattery sooth the dull cold ear o' death?
18. Well how do you do?
19. Oh how beautiful.
20. Mr Smith I am glad to meet you.
21. The day being clear we went fishing.
22. Son bring me my paper.
23. Love for study a desire to do right and care in the choice of friends are important traits of character.
24. Hurry is the mark of a weak mind despatch of a strong one.
25. The teacher said I have no time to make money.
26. Strong proofs not a loud voice bring conviction.
27. We live in deeds not years in thoughts not breaths in feelings not in figures on a dial.
28. Break break break on thy cold gray stones O sea.

LESSON CXIX.—THE DASH.

The **dash** is used to denote a change in the construction of a sentence, or in its meaning,—an interruption, or a hesitation.

Examples. — “Honor — ‘tis an empty bubble.” “I visited him yesterday — what a sight!” “If we go — why, then — but we will talk of that anon; — speak on.” “Have mercy on me! I — I — I’ll confess it all.”

The dash is also used to set off words and clauses used parenthetically; as, “I have seen thousands — or, more properly, tens of thousands — feeding together on the rich grass of the prairies.”

The dash is often placed after other points to give greater prominence to the separation denoted by them.

**LESSON CXX.—CURVES.**

Curves, or parenthesis marks, are used to enclose a word, a phrase, or a clause, either explanatory or suggested by the main idea, which is introduced in

such a way as not to interrupt the connection of the parts of the sentence.

Examples.—"The disposition of our most eminent and most virtuous men (alas! that it should be so) to keep aloof from public affairs, is a serious fact." — "The bright moon poured in her light on tomb and monument, on pillar, wall, and arch, and most of all (it seemed to them) upon her quiet grave."

The parts which are enclosed by curves must be punctuated as others are; but, usually, no point is placed before the latter curve, unless the words form a full sentence, or require an exclamation or an interrogation mark.

Curves are not employed so much as they were formerly; dashes take their place; as, "The great northern kingdoms of Europe — Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway — did not then attract much attention."

BRACKETS.

Brackets are used to enclose words necessary to explain a preceding word or sentence, or to correct an error.

Examples.—"The finder [James] has been rewarded."—"Washington was born on the twenty-second [the eleventh, according to old style] day of February, 1732." — "He said how [that] he would not disappoint us."

LESSON CXXI.—SIMILE.

Simile is the figure of speech by which a direct comparison is made by the use of such words as *like* or *as* between things not of the same kind; as, "The Assyrians came down *like* a wolf on the fold."

EXERCISE.

Select from literature five of the best similes that you can find in which the comparison is made by *like*.

Select in the same way five similes in which comparison is made by *as*



LESSON CXXII.—METAPHOR.

Metaphor is an expression of likeness between things that resemble each other, but without any comparison; as, "The warrior was a lion for strength and a fox for cunning." — "A ball of fire was in the sky, a blood spot in the sea."

EXERCISE.

Select from good literature five sentences containing metaphors.

LESSON CXXIII.—ALLEGORY.

Allegory is a description of one thing under the image of another — a kind of extended metaphor. The best example in English literature is “The Pilgrim’s Progress.”

A **Fable** is a short allegory in which an animal is described as acting or speaking like a human being.

EXERCISE.

Read a short fable. Write a short fable in imitation of the one that you have read.



LESSON CXXIV.—METONOMY.

Metonymy is the use of the name of one object for that of another to which the former bears some relation; thus:

The cause for the effect; as, “The pen (literature) is a great civilizer.”

Effect for cause; as, "There is death (poison) in the pot."

Container for contents; as, "The drunkard loves his bottle."

Sign for thing signified; as, "He assumed the scepter (the sovereignty)."

EXERCISE.

Write from good literature samples of metonymy in each of the foregoing forms.



LESSON CXXV.—SYNECDOCHE.

Synecdoche is a figure in which we use a word that expresses either more or less than we mean; as, *sail* for ship; *head* for person; *hand* for laborer; *season* for year; *wave* for the sea.

"The Royal George sank beneath the wave." — "A fleet of forty sail." — "Seven hands were employed." — "I know a maid of sixteen summers."

EXERCISE.

Write from good literature examples of synecdoche.

LESSON CXXVI.—HYPERBOLE.

Hyperbole consists in exaggerated expression used for heightened effect; as, "The waves ran mountain high."

EXERCISE.

Write ten examples of hyperbole from standard literature.

LESSON CXXVII.—APOSTROPHE.

Apostrophe is a turning from the subject in hand to address some deceased person or some inanimate object; as, "O Solomon, my son, my son, would I had died for thee!" — "O grave, where is thy victory! O death, where is thy sting!"

EXERCISE.

Select and write five examples of apostrophe taken from good literature.

LESSON CXXVIII.**CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD WRITING.**

If we have learned to express ourselves in good English we will notice that our composition has the following four characteristics:

1. **Clearness.**—Composition must be so clear that there can be no misunderstanding about its meaning.

2. **Unity.**—Keep to the text. It is necessary that every sentence should add to the main thought. Do not ramble. Irrelevant matter must be excluded.

3. **Strength.**—What we say must be said in the most forceful way. Brevity is not only the soul of wit, but it is also an element of strength.

4. **Elegance.**—We must aim to make what we say please, if we are to convince. We must be careful not only as to what we say, but also as to how we say it.

Abraham Lincoln's writing contained in a marked degree the four elements just mentioned.



LESSON CXXIX.—STUDY OF A DESCRIPTION.

EVENING IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

The sound of casual footsteps had ceased from the abbey. I could only hear, now and then, the distant voice of the priest repeating the evening service, the faint responses of the choir; these paused for a time, and all was hushed. The stillness, the desertion, and obscurity that were gradually prevailing around, gave a deeper and more solemn interest to the place.

Suddenly the notes of the deep-laboring organ burst upon the ear, falling with doubled and redoubled intensity, and rolling, as it were, huge billows of sound. How well do their volume and grandeur accord with this mighty building! With what pomp do they swell through its vast vaults, and breathe their awful harmony through these caves of death, and make the silent sepulcher vocal! — And now they rise in triumph and acclamation, heaving higher and higher their accordant notes, and piling sound on sound. — And now they pause, and the soft voices of the choir break out into sweet gushes of melody; they soar aloft, and warble along the roof, and seem to play about these lofty vaults like the pure airs of heaven. Again the pealing organ heaves its thrilling thunders, compressing air into music, and rolling forth upon the soul. What long-drawn cadences! What solemn sweeping concords! It grows more and more dense and powerful—it fills the vast pile, and seems to jar the very walls—the ear is stunned—the senses are overwhelmed. And now it is winding up in full jubilee—it is rising from the earth to heaven—the very soul seems rapt away and floated upward on this swelling tide of harmony.—*Washington Irving.*

Notice in the foregoing description that the first sentence tells that the cathedral is quiet. **Notice** also the vivid description of the music.

What ideas are conveyed by:

- (a) Doubled and redoubled intensity?
- (b) The notes *rolling*?
- (c) Huge *billows* of sound?
- (d) How does the *sound* compare with the *building*?
- (e) Why is the harmony spoken of as *awful*?

The foregoing description can be enjoyed, but it is so sublime that no ordinary writer could hope to equal it.

Write a somewhat similar description of the greatest church with which you are familiar.



LESSON CXXX.—DEBATE.

WEBSTER'S FIRST PLEA.

When Daniel Webster was some ten or twelve years old, the vegetables in his father's garden were preyed upon by a wild animal. Daniel and his elder brother Ezekiel soon tracked the trespasser to a hole on the hillside.

The hole was the home of a cunning old woodchuck, or ground hog, as the animal is called in some parts of the country. Having located the cause of the havoc made in the garden, the boys set to work to capture it.

They made a trap, and in due time caught the woodchuck. The question then arose as to how they should dispose of the prisoner.

"Here you are, old fellow, at last," cried Ezekiel. "You've done mischief enough, Mr. Woodchuck, and now you shall die."

"No, no!" answered Daniel; "don't kill him! Open the trap and let him go. He didn't mean to do any harm."

And thus the boys disputed as to the fate of the woodchuck. As they could not agree, Daniel suggested that they refer the case to their father. Though Mr. Webster was a farmer in New Hampshire, he was also a judge in the County Court.

"Well, my boys," said Mr. Webster, "I will act as judge, and you shall be the counsel, and plead the case for and against the life and liberty of the dumb prisoner."

Ezekiel made the first plea. His argument was a strong one against the wild and destructive animals in general, and against the woodchuck in particular. He called attention to the damage which had been done already to the growing vegetables, and to the further mischief which might be done if the animal were set free. He referred to the fact that the woodchuck's hide was of some value, but not at all equal to the damage done. Besides, if the animal were allowed to go free now, he would be more cunning than ever before, and

so would likely never be captured again. Ezekiel's argument was ready, strong, and convincing. It made a good impression on the father, who looked with pride on his son, and felt certain that a boy who could make such an argument would surely become a great lawyer.

Daniel saw that his brother's plea had affected the judge. His large black eyes looked with pity on the timid animal in the trap. His heart swelled, and he appealed with eloquent words for the life and liberty of the captive.

"God," said he, "made the woodchuck. He made him to live, and to enjoy his freedom in the fields and woods. God did not make the woodchuck or anything else in vain, and he has as much right to life as any other living thing.

"The woodchuck is not fierce and destructive as the fox, the wolf, and many other wild animals. True, he has eaten a few vegetables, but these were as necessary to him as was the food upon our table to us; so, on this account, he should not be punished with death.

"God furnishes our food; and shall we not spare a little for the dumb creature which has as much right to his small share of God's bounty as we have to our portion? Besides, the woodchuck has never broken the laws of his nature, nor the laws of God, as man often does; but he has followed the simple instincts which he received from the hand of his Creator.

“Created by God’s hand, he has a right from Him to life, to food, to liberty; and we have no right to deprive him of any one of these. Look at this poor animal now, as he mutely pleads for that life which is as sweet to him as ours is to us. If we deprive him of that life which God gave, and which once taken we cannot restore, we must expect a judgment for a cruel act.”

During this appeal the tears had started in the father’s eyes, and at its close they were running down his cheeks. His father’s heart was stirred within him, and he felt that God had blessed him in his children beyond the common lot of man. His pity and sympathy were actively awakened by the eloquent words of his son, and forgetting the judge in the man the father sprang from his chair and exclaimed loudly:

“Zeke! Zeke! Let that woodchuck go!”

And thus it was that Daniel Webster won his first case. In after life both he and his elder brother studied law. Ezekiel became a successful lawyer and eminent judge, and Daniel achieved the highest honors as lawyer, orator, and statesman.

In the foregoing debate the resolution was: **Resolved**, that the woodchuck shall die.

Affirmative argument, Ezekiel.

Negative argument, Daniel.

For the affirmative Ezekiel argued:

1. Against wild and destructive animals in general.
2. Against this woodchuck in particular.
 - (a) The damage he had done.
 - (b) The further damage that he would do if set free.
 - (c) If set free he would be more difficult to catch.
 - (d) That even if killed now his skin would not repay the damage he had done.

For the negative Daniel argued:

1. That God made the woodchuck.
 - (a) To live.
 - (b) To enjoy freedom.
 - (c) God did not make the woodchuck in vain;
therefore
 - (d) He has a *right* to life.
2. The woodchuck is not fierce and destructive.
 - (a) He does not harm man.
 - (b) He eats only a *few* necessary vegetables.
 - (c) His offence not worthy of death.
3. God in goodness furnishes *us* food.
 - (a) Shall we not further God's purpose by allowing a dumb creature a small portion? for
 - (b) The woodchuck is better than we, as
 - (c) He has never broken God's law, nor
 - (d) Nature's law.

4. God's creature has *right to life, liberty, and food.*
5. The timid animal "mutely pleads for life."
6. If we take a life that God gave, and we can not restore, how shall we answer for our cruel act?

Notice how the arguments are arranged so as to lead up to a climax, the strongest plea last.

A beautiful tree stands at the side of the street in a suburban place. Some of the citizens want the tree cut down to make way for a new sidewalk.

Arrange in order your best arguments *for* cutting down the tree. Make each argument stronger than the preceding one and place the strongest appeal last.

Arrange the arguments *against* the cutting down of the tree in order, leading up to a climax.

Write both arguments out in full.

Which is the stronger and more convincing argument?



LESSON CXXXI.—LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION.

SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY,
Philadelphia, Oct. 1, 1910.

Prof. J. H. Landis,
Superintendent of Schools.

Dear Sir: It gives me great pleasure to testify to the personal worth and scholarly attainments of Mr. John Roe, a member of our graduating class. Mr. Roe has

been an earnest student and has done excellent work in our model school. He has also shown himself to be a leader of boys. I cordially recommend him for the position that you describe.

Very respectfully yours,

JAMES M. WALLACE,
Principal.

Notice that a letter of recommendation practically vouches for the qualifications mentioned therein. Great care should be exercised in giving recommendations.

EXERCISE.

Write a recommendation for a boy who wishes a position in a grocery store.

Sometimes a recommendation is made general, so that it can be kept and presented on other occasions. Such a recommendation should begin, "This is to certify that," or "To whom it may concern:" or in some such form.



LESSON CXXXII.—FORMAL NOTE OF INVITATION.

Miss Mary Thompson requests the pleasure of Master John Smith's presence at her Birthday party on Thursday evening, March twenty-fifth, eight to eleven o'clock.

Maple Cottage,
March 18, 1910.

Notice that the *formal* note is written in the *third person*. The acceptance or regrets must be in the same form.

NOTE.—Formal notes are usually engraved except when they are for a small party or an individual invitation. The stationer will assist with his knowledge and taste.

LESSON CXXXIII.—INFORMAL CORRESPONDENCE.

(CHARLES LAMB TO HIS FRIEND ALLSOP.)

Dear Allsop,

We are going to Dalston on Wednesday. Will you come and see the last of us tomorrow night—you and Mrs. Allsop?

Yours truly,

Monday Evening.

CHARLES LAMB.

Notice that this letter is very warm and familiar, indicating close friendship.

ACCEPTANCE.

Dear Lamb,

Mrs. Allsop and I will be with you tomorrow night. We are sorry to lose you and Mrs. Lamb for a while, but you'll soon be with us again.

Yours,

ALLSOP.

Tuesday Morning.

REGRETS.

My dear Lamb,

I am dreadfully sorry, but Mrs. Allsop went to her mother's and I have promised to meet them. We shall run up and see you as soon as possible. We wish you a delightful trip.

Yours truly,

ALLSOP.

Tuesday Morning.

EXERCISE.

1. Write an informal invitation to an evening at cards.
2. Write an acceptance.
3. Write regrets.

**LESSON CXXXIV.—STUDY OF LETTER.****LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.**

(A COLLEGE GIRL TO HER SISTER.)

WILSON COLLEGE,

June 5, 1910.

Dear Mary,

This is to introduce my chum, Anna Bloomfield Eastman, who is to spend a week in our town. You and brother Frank, with Frank's new car, will show her

a good time, I know. Don't forget to have her meet the Greenway girls before she leaves you.

Your affectionate sister,

ELIZABETH.

Mary Anna Graham,
West Chester, Pa.

Notice the familiar style of the foregoing letter. How many paragraphs does it contain?

Notice that it does not conform to the usual form of letter, which contains introductory, principal, and closing paragraphs.

Such a letter as this is not mailed, but is presented in person by the bearer. A long letter would be out of place.

EXERCISE.

1. Write such a letter as the foregoing, introducing a new-found friend to your mother.
2. Write one introducing a business acquaintance to a friend in business.
3. **Notice** that a business introduction would naturally carry with it a semi-financial responsibility on your own part.

A letter introducing a friend should be as carefully guarded as one that carries financial endorsement. We should introduce only persons whom we know well.

INDEX.

A

A, an, 124
 Abstract noun, 37
 Access to, 192
 Acquaint with, 192
 Acquit of, 192
 Active voice, 139
 Address, nominative by, 101
 of envelope, 87
 Adjectives, 20, 126
 classes of, 126
 clauses used as, 201
 comparison of, 130
 definition of, 126
 parsing of, 134
 phrases used as, 201
 pronominal, 128
 Adverbial clause, 212
 Adverbs, 20, 171, 188
 classes of, 171
 clause used as, 212
 comparison of, 174
 conjunctive, 173
 definition of, 171
 not to split infinitive, 189
 parsing of, 176
 phrase used as, 211
 position of, 189
 Affirmation, 175
 After, 178
 Agreement of pronoun and antecedent, 75
 of verb with subject, 163
 Agriculture, 187, 191
 Allegory, 234
 Analysis, 18, 27
 definition of, 27
 of complex sentence, 27, 28
 of compound sentence, 28
 of letter, 80, 81, 82
 of simple sentence, 27, 28
 And, 179
 Angry with or at, 192

Antecedent, 74
 agreement of pronoun with, 75
 of it, 78
 of what, 111
 Any, 129
 Apostrophe, 62, 102
 Apposition, 99
 Arrangement, 189
 of letter, 80
 Arrive at or in, 192
 Article, 20, 124
 definite, 124
 definition of, 20, 124
 indefinite, 125
 use of, 125
 As if, as so, 180
 Auxiliaries, 161

B

BE, 13, 162
 Before, 78, 179
 Both, 180
 Both and, 180
 Brackets, 232
 But, 180
 But that, 180

C

CAN, could, 142, 162
 Capitals, 17, 213
 Case, 61
 definition of, 61
 independent, 100
 nominative, 61
 objective, 61
 possessive, 61, 102
 same, 99

Clauses, 24, 26, 203, 204
 classes of, 212
 definition of, 24
 parenthetical and restrictive, 26
 use of, 212
 Collective nouns, 37
 Colon, 220
 Comma, 224
 Common noun, 36
 adjectives, 126
 Comparative, 131
 Comparison, 130
 of adjectives, 130
 of adverbs, 174
 definition of, 130
 degrees of, 130
 irregular, 132
 regular, 130
 Complement, 201
 attribute, 30, 31
 object, 31, 201, 208, 213
 Complex conjunction, 180
 noun, 36
 sentences, 25, 28
 Compound predicate, 25
 sentence, 25, 28
 subject, 25
 Conclusion, 84
 Condolence, letter of, 96
 Conjunction, 20, 179
 complex, 180
 correlative, 180
 definition of, 179
 Conjunctive adverbs, 173
 pronouns, 110
 Contraction of sentences, 23
 Copula, 13
 Correct form of adverbs, 188
 of agreement of pronoun, 106
 of apposition, 99
 of conjunctions, 195
 of independent case, 100
 of indicative and subjunctive,
 197
 of nominative case, 97
 of objective case, 105
 of possessive case, 102
 of predicate noun or pronoun,
 170
 of prepositions, 191
 of relatives, 109, 121
 of verb with subject, 163
 Curves, 231

D

DASH, 231
 Debate, 239
 Declarative sentence, 16
 Declension, 63
 of noun, 63
 of pronoun, 76, 110
 Definite article, 124
 Degrees of comparison, 130
 Demonstratives, 129
 Description, 237
 Diagram, 28, 208
 Diminutive noun, 37
 Double negative, 189

E

EACH, 129
 Either, 129
 Emphasis, adverbs of, 175
 Essential parts, 12
 Even, 175
 Ever and never, 172
 Every, 129
 Exclamation, 16, 17, 217
 Expansion of sentences, 22
 Expert at, in, with, 192
 Expletive, 175

F

FEMININE, 55
 Foreign nouns, 44
 Future tense, 146
 perfect, 148

G

GENDER, 54
 definition of, 54
 of nouns, 54, 55
 of personal pronouns, 75
 of relatives, 109
 Grammar, 11

H

H, an before, 125
 Heading, 81
 Hyperbole, 236

I

I, personal pronoun, 75, 76
 Imitation, 48
 Imperative mode, 143
 sentence, 16
 Imperfect participle, 150
 Indefinite pronoun, 78
 pronominal adjective, 129
 Independent nominative, 100, 101
 elements, 202
 phrase, etc., 202
 Indicative mode, 142
 and subjunctive mode, 197
 Infinitives, 143, 155
 Interjections, 20, 182, 217
 Interrogations, 16, 17, 217
 Interrogative adverbs, 173
 pronouns, 75
 sentence, 16, 17, 217
 Intransitive verb, 136
 Invention, 54
 Irregular verbs, 158

J

JOINT ownership, 103

L

LANGUAGE, 11

Letter, 80
 address for, 87
 analysis of, 80, 81
 body of, 83
 business, 85
 conclusion of, 84
 envelope for, 87
 heading of, 81
 introduction to, 81
 money order, 88
 postage, 88
 postal requirements for, 86
 registry of, 89
 salutation, the, in, 82
 writing, 80
Limit, 124, 126, 128

M

MANNER, adverbs of, 172
Manual training, 74, 124

Many, 129
May, might, 142
Metaphor, 182, 233
Metonymy, 234
Mode, 141
Modifier, 23, 27, 201, 202, 204, 206
Money order, 88

N

NEGATIVE adverb, 171, 189
Neither, 129
Neuter gender, 55
No and **yes**, 172
Nominative case, 61
None, 129
Nor, 180
Noun clause, 212
Nouns, 19, 35
 abstract, 37
 classes of, 36
 collective, 37
 common, 36
 definition of, 35
 diminutive, 37
 parsing of, 115
 proper, 36
Number, 38
Numeral adjectives, 126

O

O and **oh**, 217
Object of infinitive, 156, 204
 of participle, 151, 204
 of preposition, 61, 178
 of verb, 61, 105
Ordinal, 126

P

PARAGRAPH, 32, 34
Parsing of adjectives, 134
 of adverbs, 176
 of conjunctions, 183
 of infinitives, 168
 of nouns, 116
 of participles, 169
 of prepositions, 183

- Parsing of pronouns, 117
 of verbs, 166
 Participles, 150
 definition of, 150
 forms of, 150
 Parts of speech, 18, 19
 Passive voice, 139
 Period, 17, 215
 Person, 52
 agreement of verb and subject in,
 163
 of nouns in, 52
 of pronouns in, 75
 of verbs in, 149
 Personal pronouns, 75
 agreement of, with antecedent,
 106
 compound, 78
 declension of simple, 76
 of compound, 79
 simple, 75
 Personification, 60
 Phrases, 24, 25, 178, 203, 204, 211
 definition of, 25
 classification of, 211
 use of, 211
 Place, adverbs of, 172
 Plural, 38
 formation of, 38, 41, 43, 44
 of nouns, 38
 of pronouns, 78
 Position of adverb, 188, 189
 Positive and negative form, 22
 degree, 130
 Possessive, formation of, 62, 102
 of complex nouns, 62
 of compound nouns, 62
 of nouns, 62
 of pronouns, 77, 78
 Postal requirements, 87
 Predicate, 12
 adjective, 171
 complete, 13, 25
 compound, 25
 noun or pronoun, 170
 possessive, 171
 simple, 13, 25
 Prepositions, 20, 178
 definition of, 178
 object of, 61
 parsing of, 183
 use of, 78, 79
 exact, 191, 192, 139
 Prepositional phrase, 211
 Present tense, 145, 148
 Pronominal adjective, 128
 Pronouns, 19, 74
 adjective, 128
 interrogative, 114
 personal, 75
 relative, 109
 Punctuation, 17, 215
- Q**
- QUESTION, 114, 217
 Quotation, 72, 218
- R**
- REGULAR and irregular verbs, 158
 Relative pronoun, 109
 Rhetoric, figures of, 60, 233
- S**
- S, for plural, 38
 's, sign of possessive, 61
 Salutation, 82
 Semicolon, 222
 Sentences, analysis of, 27
 classes of, 15, 16, 200
 complex, 25
 compound, 25
 declarative, 16, 17
 definition of, 12
 diagram of, 28, 208
 essential parts of, 12, 199
 exclamatory, 16, 17
 imperative, 16, 17
 interrogative, 16, 17
 simple, 12, 25
 structure of, 11
 Separate ownership, 104
 Sex and gender, 54, 55
 Shall and will, 148
 Simile, 181, 233
 Simple sentence, 12, 25, 199

Since, 172
 Singular number, 38
 Split infinitive, 189
 Strong and weak verbs, 157
 Subject, 12
 clause as, 200, 201
 complete, 13, 25, 200
 compound, 25, 200
 infinitive as, 201
 phrase as, 200
 simple, 12, 25, 199
 Subjunctive mode, 142
 and indicative mode, 187
 Superlative degree, 131
 Synecdoche, 235

T

TENSE, 145
 That, 129
 The, 124
 Them, 172
 Time, adverbs of, 172
 To with infinitive, 143, 144, 155,
 189
 omitted, 143

V

VERB, 20, 135
 phrase, 25
 Verbal, 152
 noun, 37, 152
 Voice, 139

W

WEAK and strong verbs, 157
 What, 114
 When, 173
 Whence, 172
 Where, 172, 173
 Which, 114
 Who, 114
 Word, 11, 14
 definition of, 14

Y

YES and no, 175
 Yet, 172
 You, 12, 76
 Yourself, 78, 79, 80







